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PRECEDENT, PRIVILEGE, AND FINANCE.

THE Ministers have probably employed the short recess in deciding on the Report which is hereafter to be drawn up by the Precedents Committee. As Mr. BRIGHT observed, with that unwonted good humour which is only produced by the hope of a spirited quarrel, the twenty-one gentlemen who are to compare Lord Lyndhursr's speech with Lord Cran-WORTH'S are in the highest degree competent to discharge their important duties; but, according to a precedent beyond the control of the House of Lords, they are divided as eleven to ten, and consequently the Government can dictate the form of their resolutions. It is for Lord Palmerston and Lord John Russell to determine whether the Report shall be confined to a bare recapitulation of the cases bearing on the question at issue, in which there will be little room for variety of statement. If it is thought desirable to deduce a conclusion from the precedents, the Government will be mainly responsible for the terms in which it may be expressed. On the whole, the House of Commons will probably receive and accept a recommendation to protest against the infringement of an established privilege without provoking any immediate collision. Mr. GLADSTONE has, with a prudent magnanimity, abstained from any direct interference with a measure in which he is personally concerned. Lord Palmerston evidently desires to avoid an unseasonable quarrel; and Lord John Russell, though a professed zealot for the privileges of the House of Commons, cannot forget that his own nearest and most devoted allies refused their aid to the Government in the recent division. It is not the interest of any moderate party, or of either House, to pursue the conflict to extremity. The Commons can only invoke their Constitutional right in support of an acknowledged financial blunder, and the Peers ought to be aware that they have conferred an immediate service on the country at considerable risk to their own future authority. Their enthusiastic eulogists demonstrate to little purpose that the assent which is necessary to the validity of a Money Bill must involve an exercise of discretion and of will. The practice of the Constitution bears to the letter of the law the same relation as the conduct of a well-bred man to the rules of a book on etiquette. For the most part, a gentleman recognises the formal rules and prohibitions which are laid down for the benefit of inexperienced students of politeness; but the details of courtesy, the niceties of voice and manner, the topics and the tone of conversation, are regulated by the unwritten code which personal tact derives from the experience of society. Private intercourse and Constitutional Government would equally come to a dead-lock if all nominal rules and rights were rigidly enforced, and in neither case would the stronger and coarser natures be found the principal losers. The House of Lords has the deepest interest in maintaining the compromises and conventions which mask and protect its comparative weakness. By insisting too obstinately on its legal rights, it would only provoke the House of Commons to control, to baffle, and, in the last resort, to swamp a litigious rival. The assembly which virtually nominates the Executive Government disposes to a great extent of the prerogative of the Crown in support of the privileges which it claims for itself, and in fiscal legislathe privileges which it chains for itself, and it in itself legislation it might easily recover the monopoly of power which has now for the first time been effectually disputed. Although it is highly desirable that the larger portion of the revenue should be granted permanently by statute, the House of Commons might assert its privileges by reverting for the future to the ancient system of annual grants. It will certainly not submit hereafter to the censure on itself which is involved in the correction of the Budget by the House of Lords. It may be hoped that Mr. GLADSTONE OF his successor will not again excuse a Constitutional irregu-

larity by a grave financial imprudence. The right verdict has been given by the wrong jury, and, on the whole, the losing party will be well-advised in not moving for a new trial.

Notwithstanding the annoyance of finding his own plans overruled, the Chancellor of the Exchequer will recognise the convenience of a revenue largely in excess of his calcula-tions. Unless the surplus is unavoidably absorbed by the Chinese war, it will now become unnecessary to borrow a million for the purpose of paying off the Exchequer Conds in October. In default of any immediate disturbance of the peace of Europe on the part of France, the natural increase of the revenue by means of increased consumption will probably not be less than a million. No Finance Minister is justified in counting beforehand on a year of extraordinary prosperity, and every unforeseen surplus, representing the annual progressof trade and of wealth, ought to be scrupulously applied to the diminution of the Debt. With the help of the Paper-duty, and of the probable increased return of various taxes, Mr. GLADSTONE may, after all, escape the scandal of paying out of capital a considerable portion of the expenses of the current year. In 1861, he will probably propose a shilling income-tax, and the removal of the war duties on tea and sugar. The Knowledge-tax Association, if they attempt the renewal of their agitation for the repeal of the Paper-duty, may fairly be reminded that the House of Commons had all but anticipated the rejection of their project by the House of Lords.

Only the most sanguine proprietors of penny newspapers will rely on a twelvementh's duration of the state of mind in which Mr. GLADSTONE brought forward the Budget of the present year. The extemporaneous dogmas in political cconomy with which he dazzled the House of Commons will never recur to his own fertile understanding when the practical conclusions which they seemed to support have been already abandoned. The Paper-duties were to be repealed because, in addition to other reasons, the removal of taxes from manufactures tended to encourage and reward industry more certainly than any direct relief to the general consumer. The contrary proposition may be still more foreibly urged in favour of the claims of tea and sugar, as it derives additional weight from the attribute or peculiarity of being true. A grocer would scarcely employ more shopmen, or pay them higher wages, in consideration of a diminished outlay on the brown paper which incloses his packages, even if the saving amounted to several pounds in the year. On the other hand, experience proves that a reduction in the duties on tea and sugar passes at once into the pocket of the retail on tea and sugar passes at once into the pocket of the retail purchaser, while the dealer looks to his profit from increased consumption. Any curious student might find, in the long series of Mr. Gladstone's masterly orations, the most lucid expositions of the doctrine which he temporarily repudiated for the purpose of his Budget argument. The sounder opinion will be urged with fresh vigour whenever a change of circumstances renders it once more a duty and pleasure to swim with the stream of truth.

The renewal and increase of the Income-tax will meet with more formidable opposition. The Duke of Argyll probably expressed the opinion of the majority of his colleagues, when he declared that even the present rate of duty, if tenable at all, could only be maintained as the price of large experiments in the reduction of indirect taxation. Mr. Gladstone himself intimated a similar opinion when he boasted of the partial redress of the balance of taxation which he professed to effect in favour of the poor against the rich. Whatever may be the soundness of the general proposition, it has become evident that Parliament is not for the present inclined to adopt speculative reductions. The future reform of the tariff, except in the articles of tea and sugar, must wait for the legitimate opportunity of a surplus revenue. No Chancellor of the Exchequer will, for

some years, again propose to buy up Customs and Excise duties by the easy process of adding a penny in the pound of Income-tax for every million of relief to consumption. There would, indeed, be much to be said in favour of direct taxation, when it is equal and uniform, if it were not liable to evasion. The evil of a percentage taken from income ends with itself, while taxes on commodities limit convenience and enjoyment without any corresponding advantage to the Exchequer. Mr. GLADSTONE's arguments in favour of the Income-tax are perhaps more consistent with economical orthodoxy than the numerous and brilliant declamations which he has delivered on the opposite side of the question. His demonstration might be accepted as complete on his own novel hypothesis that taxes, whether light or heavy, ought to be made as disagreeable and irksome as possible; but the weak point of the Income-tax consists in the unpopularity which recommends it to its present champion. long as the contributors to the tax possess considerable influence in Parliament and in the constituencies, the burden is likely to be borne with impatience. The soundest economists regard with uneasiness an impost which may at any moment be exclusively paid by a class wholly deprived of political power; nor can they fail to acknowledge the risk of an empirical readjustment which would place the entire burden on realized property. It is impossible to forget that Mr. GLADSTONE has repeatedly invited proposals for differential rates of duty, and that he has even expressed an opinion in favour of an utterly indefensible extension of relief to smaller incomes. Having, to the best of his ability, unsettled confidence and diffused general alarm, he ought not to be surprised at any combination which may be formed between economists and ignorantly impatient taxpayers. If the impending shilling in the pound is absolutely indispensable to the maintenance of public credit, Parliament will once more submit to the unwelcome burden; but it will not be sufficient to suggest, as in the case of the Paper-duty, that some contingent benefit may arise from a further extension of the Income-tax. When the percentage is variable and the duration precarious, the impost is as indefensible in theory as it is practically unpalatable to those who pay it.

GARIBALDI AND ITALY.

THE accounts of Garibald's progress are, from their fragmentary character, somewhat puzzling. It seems certain that, aided by an insurrection in the city, he has occupied a part of Palermo, and as the enemy are represented as relying on a cannonade from the batteries and the ships, it would appear that the strong Neapolitan force on the spot has been defeated or effectually cowed. It is difficult to understand how the bravest combatants can maintain their ground against a bombardment to which they have no means of replying; but Garibaldi is experienced and prudent, as well as bold, and his partial success is a proof that his enterprise has thus far been conducted with no unjustifiable rashness. The rumours of military desertion to his standard have not hitherto been confirmed, but all the information which arrives from the island is confused and precarious. The Neapolitan Government probably seldom hears the truth from subordinate functionaries, and certainly never tells it to the world. The vessels which convey supplies to the insurgents are too anxious to escape after landing their cargoes for any detailed inquiry into the accuracy of the news which the crews may casually pick up during their short intercourse with the shore.

The ultimate success or failure of the insurrection will depend on circumstances which it is impossible to appreciate beforehand. The Neapolitan army, with artillery, provisions, and frequent reinforcements, resting on the unassailable basis of the sea, ought, according to all military rules, to be more than a match for any number of irregular assailants. In the particular struggle, the doubtful pugnacity of the soldiers is stimulated by the neighbourly contempt and hatred which the inhabitants of the mainland have been accustomed to reciprocate with the turbulent islanders. Less confidence, however, is probably felt in the power of resisting the hardy adventurers whose exploits under the command of Garreald have resounded through the whole of Italy. The hopes of the insurgents are inseparably bound up with the life of a leader who has never been accustomed to spare his own person; and one unfortunate shot might place them at the mercy of their implacable enemies; but, on the whole, the chances seem to be in favour of their expelling the Royal troops from all the open parts of Sicily. The final accom-

plishment of their projects must depend on the fate of Naples, on the decision of Sardinia, and on the mysterious policy of France. It would, perhaps, be easier to complete the formation of the Italian Kingdom than to detach a part of the Neapolitan dominions for the purpose of transferring them to the national Monarchy of the North. A peace with Continental Naples, concluded after the acquisition of Sicily by Victor Emmanuel, would be obviously but an insecure truce, preparatory to the reduction of the entire Peninsula under a single sceptre. It is not surprising that the prospect of so many political complica-tions compels thoughtful politicians to regard the progress of Garibaldi with anxiety as well as with sympathy. As long as he is not openly avowed by his Government, his own position is irregular and questionable, and at the same time there is no ostensible reason for a declaration of war by Sardinia against Naples. The rules of international law are not sufficiently elastic to suit the case of a nation which is endeavouring to reassert its unity by overthrowing the fractional Governments which keep it divided. If Northern and Southern Italy were really foreign countries in relation to each other, the Sardinian Government would have been more than the sardinian grant the sardinian description. have been morally inexcusable, as well as legally culpable, in conniving at the embarkation of Garibaldi and his forces at Genoa; but the patriots and exiles from all parts of Italy, who have for twelve years found a home and a country in Piedmont, naturally think that they have a right to extend to their native provinces the liberty and national existence which they have acquired for themselves. Down to a recent period, the general feeling would have reconciled itself to a partition of the whole country into two independent king-doms. The folly and wickedness of the Neapolitan Court have, however, left no alternative but dynastic unity, and VICTOR EMMANUEL himself will not be able long to maintain a neutrality which might almost seem disloyal if it were neutrality which might almost seem disloyal if it were not obviously provisional. Under the shelter of a legal flag, supported by a navy and a regular army, the Sicilians may succeed in maintaining the independence which will be but temporarily achieved by insurrection. The consolidation of the Italian Kingdom would, indeed, be neither doubtful nor difficult if foreign jealousy and ambition would leave the nation to settle its own affairs. The annexation of Sicily, and eventually of Naples, will probably provoke the veto of France, even if it is not impeded by the more justifiable hostility of Austria; yet obstinate perseverance in a simple and undeviating policy may perhaps prevail in the end over superior force directed by passion and caprice

The Italians have secured an inestimable advantage by the merit and fortune which have pointed out a single ruler as the undoubted representative of the nation. Henceforth, whatever may be the alternations of triumph and of failure, the King of Sardinia is the residuary heir of all territorial derelicts and forfeitures which may occur in Italy. The Pope and the King of Naples have the usufruct of a portion for an uncertain term, but their estates will never be enlarged or renewed, and sooner or later they will fall in. The process of absorption will be more legitimate than the policy of the mediæval Kings of France, who successively annexed the possessions of all their principal feudatories. The Neapolitan Bourbons have, by a long course of depravity, justly forfeited their throne, and the destined King of Italy will be fully warranted in refusing to acknowledge any rival pretender to the vacant succession. The kingdom of Prussia, founded within a century and a-half on a similar basis of natural right, has long since taken its place among the great and legitimate Powers of Europe. If any squeamish purist disputes the propriety of wars which end in territorial aggrandizement, he will do well to quiet his scruples by reflecting on the horrible cruelty which the accursed Government of the Bourbons has long practised in Naples and Sicily. Frederick the Great had no such excuse for taking possession of Silesia, or for holding Saxony through the Seven Years War against the combined hostility of the Continent.

The designs and hopes of Italian patriots receive a striking illustration from the debates which have lately taken place in the Parliament of Turin. The differences which separate CAVOUR from his most conspicuous assailants are restrained within the limits of Constitutional opposition. It would not have been fitting to consummate without individual protest the abandonment of Savoy and Nice, and yet, under present circumstances, it would probably not have been desirable that the cession should be refused. Count CAVOUR rested his

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defence on the argument that it was necessary to purchase the alliance of France, and that the Emperor NAPOLEON himself required the means of satisfying the selfish cupidity of his subjects. The Minister added the assertion that Nice itself was scarcely more Italian than Savoy, and although the justice of his opinion may be doubtful, the principle which it involved is especially worthy of note. The justifi-cation of the cession on the ground that it only referred to an alien province was equivalent to a promise of maintaining henceforth the integrity of the national territory. "My sympathy," CAVOUR added, "for Venetia is "universally known; but if I could emancipate it by the "sacrifice to a foreigner of one inch of Liguria or Sardinia, "I would at once refuse the offer." In other words, France must renounce all designs on Genoa or on the island of Sardinia, or else she must carry them out by force. speeches of Guerazzi and of Ratazzi, notwithstanding their occasional tone of asperity, expressed the same principles of national policy which the Minister has carried out even in the occasionally tortuous portions of his career. The dispute was not whether Central Italy should have been annexed, but whether it would have been possible, as the orators of the Opposition asserted, to obtain the support or neutrality of France without the abandonment of Nice. It was admitted on all hands that it would have been better if Italy could, in the spirit of CHARLES ALBERT'S boast, have acted for herself alone. But Count CAYOUR maintained, with much show of reason, that it was necessary to secure, or, in other words, to purchase, a powerful alliance. The most important part of his speech consisted in the announcement that he had given notice to the French Government that the autonomy or separate administration of Tuscany must cease. The communication was, it seems, received without remonstrance, although the title of Victor Emmanuel to his kingdom, as it exists at present, has never been formally recognised. The whole tendency of the debate involved a defiance to Austria and a menace to the remaining Sovereigns of Italy. GARIBALDI may find assurances of contingent support even in the speeches of those whom he dislikes as timid and compromising politicians. If he can carry out the terms of his proclamation by obtaining the crown of Sicily for Victor Emmanuel, he may rely on the adoption of his designs by his countrymen and by the national Government.

RUFFLING FOR A REPUTATION.

THE latest proceedings of the Emperor of the French are the last resort of a gentleman in search of a character. He seems inclined to bully the world into putting faith in his pacific intentions. By an accident which testifies to something very odd and strange in the organization of the Court of Berlin—for the same thing occurred not long before the reigning King was seized with the illness under which he still labours—part of the correspondence of the highest personage in Prussia has fallen into hands for which it was certainly not intended; and NAPOLEON III., the unlooked-for recipient of the intercepted letter, instantly offers the PRINCE REGENT the alternative which is so often tendered by Irish gentlemen of peaceful disposition, "an explanation or a "meeting." Just in the same spirit. M. Achille Fould. Just in the same spirit, M. ACHILLE FOULD, the only one of the EMPEROR'S Ministers with whom he is supposed to have really confidential relations, is sent down to Tarbes to complain bitterly of the distrust which prevails through Europe, and to charge it on the calumnies of the "old parties." What a convenient thing is a phrase which wanders about the wilderness of politics like the Israelitish scapegoat! Europe might have been supposed to have meditated on the apostrophe to M. HUBNER, on the Lombard war, on the Peace of Villafranca, on the acquisition of Savoy; but the theory of the Tuileries is that these are much too weak a ground for the suspicions of the European Powers, and a cause equal to the effect can only be discovered in the persevering disaffection of a few discarded statesmen and disappointed orators. These "old parties" remind one of the "secret societies" which the chamberlains of absolute Monarchs used to believe in before the mutual insurance of Sovereigns was broken up by the Russian war. If a nun was whipped to death in the North of Europe, or an ex-Minister chained to a felon in the South, the fact was either denied as a figment of the "secret societies," or defended on the plea that the sufferer had been a member of those dreadful associations. Nor were the chamberlains altogether wrong in their estimate of the virtues of a phrase.

Mr. DISRAELI, then the champion of the legitimate tyrants, never let Parliament hear the last of "secret societies their wickedness; and Mr. BRIGHT, now the apologist of the democratic despot, insinuates that all the journals which sow distrust of the Emperor of the FRENCH are either owned at Claremont or subsidized from Frohsdorf. Cynical observers of human nature may derive a sardonic pleasure from the reflection that men are always readier to believe in the iniquity of the feeble and oppressed than in the imperfec-

tion of the successful and strong.

It is remarkable that, at the very moment when the French Minister of State is accusing the "old parties" of calumniating the EMPEROR, the "old parties" are really committing the offence of taking him at his word. They are certainly making a demonstration which is anything but pleasant to the Court, but it is not consciously directed against the foreign policy of its master. Indeed, the "old "parties" may be more justly taxed with displaying the characteristic weakness of their countrymen in the view they take of the extension of the frontiers, than with trying to alarm the neighbours of France at the ambition of her Sovereign. we understand rightly the simultaneous burst of political pamphlets from a number of gentlemen whom M. Fould would assuredly include among the "parties," they imply that the writers consider the successful aggressions of NAPOLEON III. to have settled the dynastic question. They admit that France is not likely to discard a ruler who has ministered so freely to her darling passion; and then, falling back on the assurances given by the Emperor, not only in France, but in the Guildhall of London, they require that, now that its foundations have settled down, the "edifice "shall be crowned by liberty." For eight or nine years, the "old parties" held their peace, nor need it be concealed that the opposition conveyed by their silence was dynastic. They thought the chance of the revival of liberty under one or other of the Bourbon Houses was better than the chance of receiving a measure of freedom from the existing master of their country. All at once their silence is explained by what may almost be called a clamour for improvements in the actual institutions of France; but the hostility of the demonstration is only apparent, for it indicates that the BONAPARTE Throne is now accepted as a fact of French history, instead of being regarded as a passing cauchemar. If the Emperor does not like it, he has nobody but himself to blame, for he has frequently declared that he would welcome criticism of his Constitution, as soon as it should be offered in good faith. It will be monstrous in him to assume that the complaints which he is now asked to listen to are intended, not to improve his system, but to undermine his power. Statesmen and thinkers, like M. Remusat, M. Berryer, M. Albert de Broglie, M. Odilon Barrot, M. Jules Simon, and M. Barthelémy de St. Hilaire, are not foolish enough to compose elaborate disquisitions on the philosophy of politics merely for the sake of causing some slight temporary annoyance to the lord of the Tuileries, or in order to breed discontent among the multitude which would not comprehend two of their pages, if it tried. The motive of this distinguished throng of pamphleteers must be a genuine desire to obtain some practical mitigation of their a genuine desire to obtain some practical integration of their grievances, and who in this country shall venture to sneer at their attempt? Read the list of gravamina from M. Prevost Paradol's excellent paper:—"We think, as we have always "thought and still think, that among people who pretend to "govern themselves the government ought to be confided to responsible Ministers, and that this power should be exer-"cised by them under the free control and with the indispen-"sable concurrence of deliberative assemblies. We believe "that the Assembly of the representatives of the nation ought "to be the result of elections held without the intervention of "the Government being felt otherwise than for the main-"tenance of order. We desire that no condemnation shall be pronounced against any citizen without public discussion for and against, that no one shall be withdrawn "from his natural judges, and particularly that no law at any time shall grant to the administrative authority the "power of depriving a citizen of his liberty or of his country.
"We believe that publicity is the soul of free governments;
"that the right of being acquainted with all the acts of the agents of the Government and of discussing them is the safeguard of all the others; that the press, which is the most regular and most powerful instrument of this publicity, "should not be placed at any time, nor by any law, nor in any degree, under the hand of the 'Administration,' but " that it should be left to the justice of the country, and that

"the offences committed by the press should be judged in the "same manner and with the same guarantees as all other "offences." There are probably not twenty Englishmen in the land who do not with their whole heart assent to every one of the principles here asserted; but are Englishmen all aware that each assertion represents a right at the present moment denied to the French people? When Mr. Cobden maunders in Parisian saloons about the material comfort attainable under Imperialist institutions, when Mr. Bright prates of "social freedom," do they know—we will not say that the French Government nominates candidates at elections, and dictates articles to newspapers—but that French subjects under the present régime have had a vast number of their most important rights withdrawn from the cognizance of juries and placed under the jurisdiction of a common police-court, and that the person who has once been sentenced by a police magistrate may be banished from France or deported to Cayenne at the pleasure of the Home-office? Do they know this as distinctly as they know that the Morning Star is sold for a penny, and that Mr. Leatham is to be prosecuted for

Though M. Fould misrepresents it, there is a sense in which this strenuous effort of the "old parties" has really the meaning he attributes to it. Many of the shrewdest observers in France are obviously now convinced that the EMPEROR is fairly launched on a career of aggression, and that the popularity which he is sure to obtain must make him too strong for them. In this sense, the Orleanists, Legitimists, and Republicans do certainly encourage the impression that NAPOLEON 11I. is dangerous. They know their countrymen too well to believe that there remains a chance of overthrowing a Sovereign who widens the limits of French territory, and accordingly they decide to make the best of what cannot be helped. The inference which their conduct ought to suggest to the neighbours of France is that the Emperor is now safe from all internal sources of weakness. Belgians, Prussians, Swiss, and Englishmen will therefore do well to recollect that he is very strong, and that, at the very moment when he is strongest, he invites them all to confide in him. It does not suit him to be distrusted. Want of faith in his purposes, too widely diffused throughout Europe, would compromise all his projects, rendering them difficult and expensive, and perhaps endangering their success. He knows by experience that the bolt which brings provinces to his feet is always most advantageously hurled from a clear sky, and he is therefore anxious that the Empire should always be Peace, till it suits the EMPEROR to go to war. We will not follow M. Fould's advice, and trust his master, but we will interpret the fact that such advice has been given, and conclude that M. Fould's master wishes to be trusted.

THE REFORM HYPOCRISY.

T is generally understood that, in reducing the vote of credit by a million, the Government abandoned the attempt to pass the Reform Bill during the present session. It will now become necessary to discuss the Civil Service Estimates before the end of June, and consequently it will be impossible to carry the Reform Bill through its various stages within the limit of time which is allowed by the regulations of the House of Lords. The privileges of the House of Commons in this case admit of an application which is not the less whimsical because it may, in the particular instance, be beneficial. The old doctrine that the grant of supplies should follow the redress of grievances, has been converted into a demand that the appropriation of money to the public service should precede an unpalatable discussion. The grievance which really calls for redress originates within the walls of the House, although the constituencies share the responsibility of their representatives. To avoid an unpalatable discussion and a mischievous Bill, patriotic members are seized with a conscientious scruple against accepting in the lump a mass of estimates which will, after all, be adopted without material alteration. It is perfectly right that the prescriptions of the Constitution should be rigidly observed. If the House of Commons is disinclined to throw out an obnoxious measure on the second reading, it possesses an indefeasible right to effect the same object by a judicious procrastination. The Estimates must be voted after more or less discussion; nor is it, perhaps, fitting that the money should be placed at the disposal of the Government without the proper preliminary forms. It might almost be suggested that a House of Commons so scrupulous

in the discharge of its duties scarcely requires to be reformed.

The practical defeat of the Bill, though by no means a subject of regret in itself, is not altogether dignified or satisfactory. A year ago, the constituencies and the majority which they returned displaced a Ministry on the precise issue which seems at present scarcely to provoke a difference of opinion. Almost every candidate pledged himself at the hustings to changes which almost every member now re-pudiates; and the struggle was rather for the conduct of an inevitable Reform Bill than for the maintenance or destruc-tion of the existing Constitution. It is idle to attribute the general disapprobation of the Bill by the House and the country to any special defects in the measure which is now nominally under consideration. In producing an exceedingly bad Bill, Lord John Russell honourably redeemed his pledges and those of his supporters. No politician doubted that his plan would embrace a 10l. franchise for counties, a 6l. franchise for towns, and a small transfer of seats to populous places. It was for this that the Parliament was elected, that the late Government was displaced, and that the country at large supposed itself to be mildly clamouring. It was practically insignificant whether the scheme was diluted with evasive checks or fancy franchises, for the only intelligible object of a change was to swamp the present electoral bodies by an inferior class of voters. The Government, with a scrupulous adherence to principles of which almost all its members disapproved, pretended to take at its word a House which had affected to regard as serious the all but unanimous utterances of sup-posed popular opinion. When it became evident that both parties were equally inclined to disparage and defeat the measure, it could scarcely be expected that the Government should use extraordinary efforts in forcing it through the House; yet it is unfortunate that the desired object should only be effected by the gratuitous admission of an apparent dead-lock in the Constitution. As long as the true reasons for the failure of the Bill are not openly avowed, a precedent will have been established for the inability of Parliament to legislate on any important question. The Bill was introduced early in the session, nor has it been interrupted by a single division; and yet a vote on a mere financial question of form or of privilege has already ensured its defeat for the year. The confession of error, especially when it has been mixed up with dishonesty, is seldom pleasant or graceful; but, on the whole, it might have been more judi-cious to throw out the Bill on the second reading, than to adopt it unanimously with the purpose of afterwards getting rid of it by general consent. The reaction against Parliamentary Reform is perhaps the most honest and creditable impulse to which the House of Commons has yielded since the first commencement of the agitation. Yet repentance, accompanied by professions of undeviating consistency, is but an awkward and embarrassing exercise of virtue.

The factitious demand for constitutional changes is a specimen of the mischief which, according to the poet, is always found by a vigilant provider for idle hands to do, and still more universally for idle tongues to say. At the dissolution in 1857, after the China debate, a great majority was returned for the exclusive purpose of supporting Lord Palmerston, but it was necessary for popular candidates to profess some opinion on public matters, in addition to their avowal of confidence in the popular Minister. It was useless to talk of the Crimean war, which was over, or of the lorcha Arrow, for which no hustings audience cared. Reform consequently found a place on the tip of many an idle tongue, and a Parliament which was elected almost expressly for the purpose of censuring Lord John Russell found itself pledged to support the only project by which the former Whig leader could reasonably expect to recover his lost position. When Lord Palmerston, with the aid of two or three supercilious colleagues, contrived in a few months to squander his extraordinary accumulation of popularity, his cuthusiastic supporters naturally changed their minds, and aided Mr. Gladstone and Lord John Russell to recover, on the Conspiracy Bill, the defeat which had followed their temporary triumph in the matter of China. It was but a secondary consideration that Lord Derby secured the immediate spoils of the victory, for the Opposition was united by the common profession of Reform, and Lord John Russell was the acknowledged representative of the cause. If the Conservative Government maintained its own principles, the question provided the means of supplanting it at pleasure, while there was every reason to hope that an attempt to borrow the watchword of the Opposition would lead, by a

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more circuitous course, to exactly the same result. Under the influence of Mr. DISRAELI, Lord DERBY determined to pledge his party in turn to a policy which even the Liberal majority had adopted with less flagrant and conscious insincerity. An unwise policy was accordingly embodied in an ill-constructed Bill, and Lord John Russell enjoyed the opportunity of asserting his own copyright in the invention, and of denouncing, at the same time, the conspicuous blunders of the attempted piracy. Through these various processes of party carelessness and intrigue, the whole community found itself committed to the theory that a Constitutional change was necessary, although it was scarcely pre-tended that it was expedient. At the last general election, all classes of candidates were equally liberal in their professions; and it is not surprising that the electors, on the whole, gave a preference to the party which might, by some stretch of imaginative faith, be considered as approximately sincere. The suspicious unanimity of opposite factions fortunately deadened popular enthusiasm, so that the general cant never effervesced into formidable clamour. Mr. Bright's agitation in the autumn of 1858 had already checked the zeal of amateur reformers, and when the necessities of the election were at an end, prudent men began to reflect whether their favourite measure would be as utterly inoperative as they desired. The leader of the democratic party candidly declared that he looked to practical results from democratic changes, and it seemed at least possible that a new constituency would be disposed to exercise the irresistible power which was to be placed in its hands. The welfare and which was to be placed in its hands. The welfare and safety of the country were at stake, and Englishmen are seldom indifferent to considerations of patriotism, in the absence of the disturbing influences of faction and personal ambition. By Christmas, all parties had arrived at the conclusion that the Reform Bill was a necessary evil, and at Easter the House of Commons discovered, with a hesitating satisfaction that the mischief was not the same of the mischief was not that the mischief was not that the mischief was not that the mischief was not the same of the mischief was no with a hesitating satisfaction, that the mischief was not even unavoidable. For the present it is postponed, but it is impossible to foretel the future result of the hopes which have been wantonly held out, and suddenly, if not capriciously, disappointed. Partisans in provincial and metropolitan boroughs are less open to conviction than their representatives, believing more thoroughly in phrases which they are accustomed to repeat, and thinking less seriously of practical consequences. The antagonism of Blue and Purple still survives in some districts, with almost undiminished rancour, from the days when it represented a corresponding political division. There is fortunately no appearance of a reform agitation in the country, but at future elections the old pledges may be fastened on unwilling candidates, and riveted by effective warnings against a second tergiversation.

THE ITALIAN DEBATE.

A S the issue of the debate in the Italian Parliament was known long before the voting took place, the speeches, both of those who accepted and those who declined the inevitable treaty, read rather flat. They are essays on things that belong to the past, rather than deliberations on an open and determinable future. But in politics nothing is ever altogether past. The policy that dictated the cession of Savoy and Nice is sure to tell on Italy for centuries to come, and we therefore turn with interest to these speeches in order to find there, if possible, what that policy really is, and to what it is opposed. Fortunately, Count CAYOUR and M. RATAZZI have given us, with very tolerable candour and completeness, what we want. So far as we can judge from a summary in a different language, the speeches both of the Premier and of the Leader of the Opposition were very able and masterly efforts, and we can gather from them what is the view of Italian affairs that Count Cavour entertains, and what is the view that he rejects. The old elements of Opposition with which he had formerly to deal are almost output, aliminated from the present to deal are almost entirely eliminated from the present Chamber. There are no priestly fanatics to deplore the departure of Victor Emmanuel from the traditional Catholicism of the House of Savoy, and there are no Republicans to taunt the Minister with his adherence to the system of Constitutional Monarchy. The Opposition which M. RATAZZI leads is as devoted as Count CAVOUR himself to the Monarchy, to Constitutional government, to religious freedom, to Italian independence, and to the supremacy of Piedmont in independent Italy. It is only on minor points that the difference exists; but it is sufficiently marked and sufficiently strong to divide the dissentients on many great questions of domestic and foreign policy. Neither party thought the debate on the treaty a matter of practical consequence, but both thought, and very justly, that it afforded an excellent opportunity of explaining the difference of opinion that separates them.

M. RATAZZI complained that, since the peace of Villa-franca, a change had been creeping gradually over Pied-montese policy. While the war was going on, no object was set before the combatants and their well-wishers but the independence of Italy. There was no talk of bargains with France, or of the purchase of one bit of free soil by the cession of another. But recently Piedmont has stepped in between Italy and France, and adjusted their rival pretensions. The object seems now to be to make a large State, not a free nation. The consequence is, that Italian territory has been given up to a dangerous neighbour, and that France has established the precedent of endless interference in all the affairs of Italy. When M. RATAZZI and his colleagues were in office, they laboured to bring about a very different result, and might, they think, have succeeded if they had not been borne down by the senseless popular clamour of which Count Cavour has taken advantage. They saw in Piedmont an existing model which they wished to see reproduced in Italy generally. They saw a free Constitution in actual and successful operation, and a disciplined and victorious army. If Italy wished to make herself what Pied-mont was, she must copy her. She must accept Sardinian institutions, abjure municipal jealousies, weld herself into a homogeneous whole, and trust not to raw levies of volunteers, but to soldiers who make war a profession and submit to the rigours of military law. If this had been done, there would have been no opening for foreign interference in the internal administration of the country; whereas, by teaching the annexed provinces to consider themselves virtually separate, the present Government has paved the way for French intervention at the first moment of discordance between these provinces and Piedmont. In a short time, a large regular force, fit to encounter Austrians and Papal Zouaves, would have been organized, and this force would have been completely under the control of the King and his Ministers; whereas now the volunteers assemble as they please, go where they please, get beaten, or win a barren triumph, and throw on the Cabinet the responsibility of foolish acts over which it has no control. If Northern Italy had been made into a compact State, with uniform institutions and an adequate army, Victor Emmanuel might have defied alike his foes and his friends. Why should he have given up Savoy and Nice ? Louis Napoleon would not have taken them by force, and his threat of leaving Italy to fight single-handed against Austria is quite idle. A proper reliance ought to be placed on his attention to his own interests. It could never answer to him to let Piedmont be crushed; and therefore, however much he might scold and threaten, he would be sure in the long run to take care that the Italians were not too closely pressed by Austria. The cession of Savoy and Nice was purely gratuitous. It was like paying a man to take care of his own house. And this great blunder has entirely arisen from the fundamental mistake of making the future of Italy a matter of foreign policy and diplomatic bargain, instead of assuring it by looking only to the internal

resources and wants of the country.

Such, if we understand his speech rightly, are the views of M. Ratazzi. Count Cavour objects that these views are based on an entire misconception of existing facts. The scheme of moulding all the institutions of free Italy into exact accordance with those of Piedmont entirely overlooks the historical differences which centuries of separation have stamped on the minds of Italians, and very prematurely assumes that everything that is Piedmontese must be best. The scheme of trusting solely to a regular army overlooks the two very important truths, that the enemies of Italy are scarcely likely to wait patiently while she is gradually disciplining a large standing force, and that the volunteers insist on volunteering, and the Government has no means of stopping them without engaging in a civil war. The policy of Italy must therefore, Count Cavour urges, be of a much more elastic nature than that which M. Ratazzi would assign to it. Room must be given for provincial peculiarities and wishes to have fair play, and the volunteers must try their luck where they like, with Piedmont ready to profit by their enterprise if they succeed, and to mourn their memory if they fail. But, as Europe does not look very favourably on a Government that regards everything as unsettled, and on frequent displays of irregular force, Piedmont must have

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an ally and protector able, not only to prevent armed intervention, but to silence the complaints of the Powers whom Piedmont may offend. This ally and protector she has found in the Emperor NAPOLEON. But even he is not all-powerful, and Piedmont must help him if he is to help her. It is he personally, and not France, that is friendly to Italy. The French care very little for the Italians, and a large portion of the nation looks with great distrust on a people who are little better than schismatics. The difficulty, therefore, with the EMPEROR was to win France over to his way of thinking, and the course he took was to bribe his subjects with a slice of new territory. Thus the true meaning of the Treaty of Cession was to strengthen the hands of the EMPEROR against his own subjects. Piedmont lost little by it; and, as she must have an ally if she is to expand undisturbed, and as her only ally was powerless unless she could make it seem that he was getting a good thing out of her, she gave her least valuable possessions as a bait to allure the French to future efforts for Italy. As Count CAVOUR acknowledged after the debate was over, these are rather delicate subjects to speak candidly about, and he threw the responsibility of his own candour on his opponents, who had forced him to speak out. It is a delicate matter to hint so plainly to all the world that Piedmont considers the present settlement of Italian affairs merely temporary; and it certainly is a very delicate matter to reveal the difficulties which the EMPEROR has to encounter in making his people go with him in helping Italy. Perhaps, however, a better defence for the past could not have been made; and Count CAVOUR has at least this much in his favour, that the vast majority of the most eminent and practical Italians think majority of the most eminent and practical Italians think his policy right. But the real danger, as M. RATAZZI has pointed out, is for the future. The French, he asserts, are beginning to intrigue in Liguria and the island of Sardinia. May we not apprehend that it will soon be discovered that the difference of opinion between the EMPEROR and his subjects can only be surmounted by the surrender of Genoa, and of an island which, according to the most elementary doctrines of natural limits, ought to go with Corsica? So, too, if the French interfered—although in a quiet and diplomatic way, and with their usual modesty and regard for the feelings of others—to preserve the self-government of Tuscany, may they not hereafter interfere to see that the self-government of Tuscany is carried out under proper protection? Count Cavour affects to speak very positively on these points. He has, he says, explained to the EMPEROR that the self-government of Tuscany must soon cease, and he declares that nothing—not even the liberation of Venice—would ever tempt him to abandon one inch of Italian soil. He spoke very confidently, and we hope his large body of supporters felt confident too; but in this country it is difficult to forget that, about a fortnight before the cession of Savoy was announced, he solemnly assured the English Cabinet that there was not the slightest intention to bargain away, cede, or sell any portion of the possessions of VICTOR

INCOME-TAX PROSPECTS.

THE Income-tax has been placed in a very singular position by the timidity of those politicians who have insisted on representing it as an essentially terminable impost. It now threatens distinctly to become a permanent element of our fiscal system, and yet nobody knows exactly what sort of a tax it is. The most sanguine calculation does not place it at less than 1cd in the pound for next year, and it would almost certainly have mounted to 14d but for the energy of the House of Lords. Under such circumstances, its descent to the rate at which it was originally fixed by Peel is scarcely among rational expectancies, and, as for its total extinction, it is an event which may be considered to have the practical proximity of the millennium. Plain, however, as is the prospect, English statesmen talk of it, and have always talked, as if, like human beings, it owed a debt to nature, and must some day sink into the grave. First, it was wanted to pay off the deficits of the old Whig Ministry. Then, it could not be given up because it was needed to defray the temporary loss of customs-duties through the establishment of Free-trade. Next, it was required to bear the expenses of war with the Emperor of Russia; and finally, it meets the cost of friendship with the Emperor of the Freench. At the end of each epoch—as soon as the Whig debts were paid, as soon as Free-trade should have struck

firm root, as soon as Sebastopol should be taken—it was always to come to an end, but it didn't. Mr. Gladstone took up a considerable portion of several sessions with clamorous assertions of the moral necessity for its extinction in 1860, and then, as Chancellor of the Exchequer in 1860, he exactly doubles its existing rate. This discreditable contrast between measures and language, between policy and debate, has resulted in all sorts of paradoxes. The greatest of them is, that the tax has for nearly twenty years been so levied that its incidence was necessarily unjust and unequal; for, though it may be theoretically true that the Income-tax, in its present shape, is the fairest of taxes, if perpetual, it becomes obviously unfair when levied for a limited term of years, and attains the maximum of injustice when taken, as Mr. Gladstone now proposes to take it, for a single twelvemonth. And another monstrous consequence is that, at the moment when politicians are getting bold enough to acknowledge that its perpetuity is inevitable, they have not the shadow of a common understanding as to its character, or as to the principles on which it should be based.

Mr. GLADSTONE affirms that the area of direct taxation ought to be extended. Mr. BRIGHT says precisely the same thing. But between the direct taxation of Mr. GLADSTONE and the direct taxation of Mr. BRIGHT there is the same similarity as between Monmouth and Maccdon. Indeed, Mr. GLADSTONE and Mr. BRIGHT differ probably more widely from each other in their conception of a just Income-tax than either of them does from the exclusive advocates of indirect taxation. Mr. GLADSTONE, it is true, has never ventured in the House of Commons on an express defence of the existing Income-tax, but has always confined himself, if we remember rightly, to demonstrating the practical impossibility of carrying out the various wild proposals which have been made for correcting its supposed inequalities. Yet the absence from his speeches of any admission of the principles laid down by financial theorists like Mr. DISRAELI sufficiently indicates Mr. GLADSTONE'S real opinion, nor need we suppose for a moment that an intellect so penetrating as his has ever been perplexed by the fallacies which seem to find an especial refuge in the brains of Actuaries. Our CHAN-CELLOR of the EXCHEQUER may be safely trusted to see that, when the State charges its subjects with the annual cost of government and of insurance against foreign aggression, it is no more under a duty to take account of varieties in the sources of their income than is the butcher who debits the Duke of Sutherland and John Smith, the greengrocer, with the price of the mutton he has supplied for their respective dinners. But does Mr. BRIGHT, who sees not through his intellect, but through his passions, take this view, or anything like it, of direct taxation? We know that he does not. We know that he deliberately advocates a mode of exaction which, even to those who complain that no difference is recognised between fixed and fluctuating incomes, seems like the reductio ad absurdum of their doctrine. It is superfluous to argue against the Brightian "taxes on realized property;" but is it not monstrous that the state of the public mind on one of the most important of fiscal questions should be such as to allow the author of the Liverpool scheme and a sane CHANCELLOR of the EXCHEQUER to hoist the same flag of direct taxation, and cruise under it together against customs and excise? The danger of the prevalent ignorance is on a par with the discredit. We have seen what it comes to when a great party unites in favour of a Reform resolution which no two of its members understand in the same sense. But the situation of the Reform Bill, perilous and disgraceful as it is, jeopardizes the interests of the nation less imminently than would a deadlock on the principles of taxation. Reform Bills can be adjourned indefinitely amid general indifference, but controversies suggested by a Budget must be fought out at once both in the House and in the country.

The confusion of men's notions on the subject of the Income-tax is one principal cause of the gross dishonesty which is perpetrated in returning the incomes subject to it. It is well known to everybody connected with the management of the revenue that old taxes are always best paid, both because they are commonly regarded as an estimated deduction from income, and because a sentiment of honour respecting their payment has gradually established itself in people's minds. The Income-tax, like all new imposts, was sure to be at first evaded as much as possible; but the habit of evasion has been perpetuated by its fluctuations in amount, by the temporary character attributed to it, and by the admissions of its injustice which so many leading

politicians have allowed to escape them. We trust that there are persons in the enjoyment of fluctuating incomes who return them to the uttermost farthing; but the most conscientious among us are apt to study the marginal notes which describe the exemptions with unusual keenness, and Heaven knows what process is followed by the large class who obviously think that their duty towards their neighbour is to overreach him as much as possible. We have often affirmed that men who will treat a friend or customer with perfect fairness and honour will unblushingly defraud the State. What, then, is likely to be the nature of Income. State. What, then, is likely to be the nature of Income-tax returns in that section of society which builds gunboats of green wood, scamps copper-bolts, winds sixty yards of cotton on reels marked with a hundred, and systematically executes orders to stamp the name of one firm on implements manufactured for another? The laxity of principle which has unfortunately begun to prevail so widely among the mercantile and manufacturing community ought not to be forgotten when we are considering the supposed popularity of direct taxation with the classes whose capital is invested in trade. Mr. Bright proposes a system of direct taxes which would not touch those classes at all; but we do them the justice of believing them to be fully alive to the utter impracticability of his suggestions, if not to their shameless injustice. Still, even if direct taxation means such a tax as the present Income-tax, or something like it, it is difficult for a reader of recent Chancery Reports to persuade himself that it presses on the men of Manchester and Liverpool as it does on the fundholder, the clergyman, the official, and the country gentleman, who cannot cheat if they would. As moral worth is, according to Radical Reformers, the sole title to the suffrage, we should like to see a schedule of enfranchisement framed according to the proportion which the estimated income of localities bears to the amount of income returned by them to the tax-collector. How many votes would such a principle add to the representation of London, Lancashire, and Yorkshire? But frauds on the Income-tax, though greater among some classes than others, and in some parts of the country than others, are, it must be confessed, not unknown in any corner of English society. Unless our national morality is to be seriously vitiated, the Income tax must either be given up, or its principles must be settled and its perpetuity acknowledged.

THE RENEWAL OF THE STRIKE.

THE threatened renewal of the Builders' Strike, while the memory of the late struggle is still fresh, will take most persons by surprise; but public opinion, if we mistake not, will soon settle down into a sterner mood. Mr. POTTER will find that the sympathy which was shown last year, and will perhaps be felt again, for the unfortunate men whom he betrays to ruin and misery, will not save him and his fellow agitators from the indignation which their wicked attempt to revive an unjust and reckless contest deserves. We presume that the challenge to the master builders would scarcely have been thrown down without some previous assurance of support from the working members of the Trade Societies, and yet it is scarcely credible that any considerable proportion of the men who have suffered so much at Mr. Potter's hands should be willing to tempt the same fate again in the same senseless cause. The English obstifate again in the same senseless cause. The English obsti-nacy which never acknowledges a defeat is, no doubt, as vigorous among the toiling classes as in any grade of society; and, if there were even the shadow of justice in favour of the Nine Hours movement, one might understand the readiness of the operatives to brave the worst for themselves and their It is a pity that so much stout courage as was displayed in the dreary winter which followed the strike should have been thrown away in obedience to such leaders and such principles as the Society men are mad enough to worship; but we can scarcely hope that such struggles will cease until the labouring classes have learned political economy enough to understand that, in taking part in a strike, they are fighting not for, but against, the cause of their order, to which they are so ready to make themselves martyrs. Some have doubt-less already learned the needful lesson. Adversity strangely sharpens the wits, and many an operative, ruminating in stubborn idleness in the midst of a starving family, may have begun to doubt whether the shallow Socialism to which

he had so freely sacrificed were not a false gospel, after all.

It would be very easy to prove the utter hopelessness of the social war which has once more been proclaimed, but

there is an attractive semblance of heroism in adhering to a desperate cause; and for one who may hold back from fear of the consequences, a thousand might be saved from destruction by learning the plain demonstrable truth that organized action is a policy fatal to the working classes, and that the free competition of the market would make their rights tenfold more secure than they can be under any system of concerted strikes. It is naturally difficult for men in their position to recognise these, or any other, economical truths. They see so plainly that union is strength, that they cannot help indulging in the hope of a millennium in which the banded brotherhood of labour shall be unanimous enough and strong enough at all times to dictate its own terms to capital. That is the dream which intoxicates the members of the Trade Societies. It is not liberty, but victory, which they look for. When their apostles speak out, it is not emancipation, but predominence which they deals for their order. Takeur shall minance which they claim for their order. Labour shall employ capital, instead of capital employing labour. This is the real war-cry, and the affectation of seeking an extra hour a day for the cultivation of their minds is a mere hypocritical pretence on the part of the leaders, which will neither deceive their opponents nor win them a single supporter from the ranks of labour. The Nine Hours movement has never been received by the working men with any special favour, and those who joined it did so, not to obtain leisure for thomselves, but to make work for their unemployed brethren. It has not been thought prudent to reiterate this claim in the last manifesto, but every workman knows well enough that the genuine doctrines of the Society leaders are something very different from the insincere twaddle of Mr. POTTER's memorial. If the reasons now put forward on behalf of the claim were the genuine grounds of the movement, there would be much sense in a proposition made by a correspondent of the Times, that the wages of labour should henceforth be paid by the hour instead of the day, leaving it to the option of each individual workman to take his hour's recreation or his hour's pay as he might prefer. But such an offer, though it would put the Society unmistakeably in the wrong, and expose the hollowness of their manifesto, would have no tendency to avert the contest. The only beneficial result which it could have would be to compel the malcontents to show their true colours, and declare that they are fighting, not to obtain rest for themselves, but primarily to secure work for the unemployed, and with the grand object in the background of asserting and establishing the Socialist principle that the terms of employment are to be regulated by what the men themselves may choose to consider their reasonable wants, instead of being left to the competition of the market. Both of these ends would be disappointed by the fair arrangement of paying each man for the number of hours' work which he elected to do in the day; and so far from accepting this scheme as a compromise, the thorough adherents of the Societies would reject it as an insulting assertion of the right of each individual workman to assertion of the right of each individual workman to monopolize an extra share of the field of labour by working overtime while some of his less efficient brethren might be altogether out of employment. Those who seek to influence the men who still cling to the theories of the Trade Societies will utterly fail unless they are prepared to meet them on their own ground. It is to no purpose to assume as a moral axiom that every free man has a right to make the most of his skill and industry, for this is precisely what a large section of the working men most emphatically, though most absurdly, deny. Neither will it be a very efficacious argument to tell bold stubborn men who believe in the gospel of Socialism that they will infallibly fail, and bring misery and premature death on themselves and their households. This is only too true; but many perhaps would admit the personal danger, and pride themselves the more on their resolution to endure everything in the defence of their order.

Still less will any good be done by exhortations in the tone adopted by the Times, in which the right of combination is represented as one which may be prudently as well as legally used, if only the provisions of the law be respected and all intimidation carefully eschewed. No one can question the legal right of the men to adopt this course; but it is impossible to be blind to the fact that intimidation is of the essence of a strike, and that even when the grosser offences which the law can reach are avoided, the whole strength of such a movement rests upon the social excommunication which any order of men have the power to inflict upon their fellows. If it be once admitted that the true interests of working men are best defended by a system of strictly legal strikes, all other dissuasions will pass by them as the wind. But nothing can be clearer to those who are able to take a dispassionate view of these unfortunate struggles than the fact that the workmen's notion of making themselves strong against their employers by force of combination is a fatal delusion; and we are satisfied that, until the men can be brought to understand this truth, no progress will be made in converting them from the mischievous doctrines of such leaders as Mr. POTTER. If the organization of the labour army could go on without creating a counter-organization on the side of capital, it would no doubt be an instrument of almost unlimited power. But the men forget that, in ex-changing the perfect liberty of peaceful relations for a state of constant preparation for war, they raise up an enemy stronger than themselves, and reduce their order to a state of comparative weakness. The occasional success of local and partial strikes has encouraged the hope of opposing union to division, and so dictating their own terms to employers whom they could defeat in detail. But the more widely the system extends, the less chance there is of snatching such casual victories. The working men have their choice between two widely different arrangements of the relations between capital and labour. They may array combination on the one side against combination on the other-and experience has abundantly proved that the end of this is to place them at the mercy of their united employers — or, if they are wise enough to prefer it, they may exclude all combined action from among the weapons to be used on either side. The certain effect of thus relying on the natural laws of demand and supply, and leaving to each member of their body to bargain for the best terms he can obtain to work as long as he and his employer may agree, without interference on the part of his fellow-workmen, will be that every man will be paid the full market value of the No single master can cut down his wages a fraction below this rate; nor can it be done by any union among the employers of labour, because not only would public opinion condemn what would then almost assume the form of a conspiracy, but their own eager competition would render such a combination practically impossible. Combination can only be justified on either side when used in selfdefence, and only then can it be conducive to the interests of those who resort to it. Neither masters nor men have the right to dominate over each other; and while the free-dom of the market is undisturbed by combination, it is impossible that either party to a contract for work can successfully insist on unfair terms. Union on one side, opposed to disunion on the other, is a state of things which cannot be permanent, and which, even if it were, would be most fatal to those who gained the immediate victory. If the whole body of workmen in the kingdom could gain the power of dictating their own conditions—if they could lop an hour off their day's work, or add a shilling to their wages, whenever they pleased—they would never-theless be the ultimate sufferers. The investment of capital in the employment of labour would become impossible, and there would soon be no masters on whom to impose terms. Wealth would find a ready welcome in any quarter of the globe, and the triumphant workmen would find that by enslaving capital they had destroyed or banished it, and would be only too glad to return to the condition of equality which is always within their reach.

That matters should ever come to such a pass is no

doubt quite impossible, because the resistance which would be provoked would deprive the men of the fatal victory which they are foolish enough to desire. whether defeated or victorious in the immediate struggle, those who fancied they were enduring privations in a holy cause would find that they had only brought inevitable ruin on their own order, when, by simple faith in the natural laws of the market, they might have ensured for it at all times the amplest remuneration which the world could afford to These may be hard doctrines for men who have persuaded themselves that the amount of their enjoyments should be regulated by some other test than the value of their work. But in rejecting them they are contending, not against artificial human arrangements, but against irresistible laws of nature, and their only safety is in recognising the limits beyond which social organization cannot go. Until they are capable of understanding such elementary truths as this, they are of all men the least fitted for the political privilege to which they are supposed to aspire. It would be singular if the languishing Reform Bill should receive its coup de grace from the hand of a Socialist agitator.

ECONOMY.

THERE are some qualities and habits which people equally resent having attributed and denied to them. Among these is the turn of mind which leads to economy, and the habit of giving this turn of mind free play. Hardly any one would like to be pronounced very economical, and still fewer would like it to be said of them that they do not know what economy means. Economy is, in fact, one of those good things the goodness of which is of so precarious and delicate a nature that, directly we praise or encourage it too much, it ceases to be good. It is a sort of sampler virtue which we all agree young folks ought to learn, but from which we, in our higher stage, claim a right to grant ourselves a dispensation. And certainly it is a virtue which is not much in fashion at present. There probably never was a time in the history of England when economy was so little practised, and when money was so little thought of except to spend. The enormous rapidity with which fortunes have been made in recent years, and the habits of luxury which a closer communication with all the ends of the earth has fostered and enabled us to gratify, have made spending habitual in classes where, fifty years ago, saving would have been much more thought of. Much of this is pure folly, and comes from one of the silliest motives that animate the silly hearts of men and women—the desire to equal in show some one for whom they do not in the least care, and who is perfectly indifferent to them. The amount of toil and anxiety which is undergone through this lamentable ambition to make a good appearance is such as human nature could not endure, were it not that one sorrow kills another, and that the torturing passion for ambiguous grandeur chases away love for kinsfolk and stills the terrors of the repentant soul. But after all the abuse that it deserves has been poured on this folly, and after all due recognition has been made of the advantages which economy brings with it, we feel that there is something to be said for the altered habits of the presen

day, and that there is a truth—although perhaps a truth dangerous to lean upon—in the doctrine that economy is a rudimentary virtue, and that nations as well as individuals may allow themselves to dispense with it at times.

As a matter of fact, no one except a few mad spendthrifts absolutely casts off economy, and one of the most salient traits of character is the tendency of each individual to practise some economy of his own. Everybody has got his or her saving point, and clings to it in the oddest way. The object is not to save the money, for the same people will spend needlessly in two minutes all that their little pet economy could treasure up for them in the year; but they practise their economy as birds take gravel, to administer a gentle alterative to their usual habits, and to assure themselves that their mind has its healthy side. There is also much of the animal instinct in it which teaches birds and cats to secrete things that may be of use to them. There is a remote and subdued feeling that this little economy gives the person who practises it a sort of victory over society, and brings an unexpected advantage in the combat with the world. To people whose own economy lies in a different direction, the instances of this accidental economy they see in their neigbours are very amusing and almost incomprehensible. There are many men, for example, in London, with good incomes, who keep expensive establishments, and indulge in all kinds of luxuries, and who yet would rather drop on the pavement than take a cab. If they took a cab as often as they really wanted one, it would perhaps add two or three pounds to their yearly expenses, and they would be perfectly indifferent whether their receipts were two or three pounds less or more in the year; but they have contracted the habit of thinking a cab a dangerous and fatal expense, and they keep within a sort of barrier of virtue as long as they resolutely decline to take one. In the same way, there are ladies who love to entertain their friends, who provide ab

There is also a difference between the economy of the two sexes. Adopting the principle that it is a rudimentary virtue, men soon begin to cast the burden of saving and close reckoning on their female friends. In the dawn of early youth both sexes are ordinarily taught to keep accounts. In the good moments of life which fortunately visit every one in turn, many youths resolve to resume the wholesome practice, and carry it on resolutely and accurately for a day or two. But then the fit subsides, and the account-keeping of most men gradually dwindles down to the simple precaution of keeping their gold in one pocket and their silver loose in another. But the accounts of women continue, and housekeeping forces them to book or inspect the small items

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of a large expenditure. It is curious to trace the effects which are relatively produced by this abandonment of and persistence in account-keeping. We cannot dissociate from their attention to household economy the wonderful courage which women display in the little conflicts of life. They are trained to battle by the labour they have undergone in examining, checking, and reducing bills; and a woman who has once bearded a butcher or a baker is not likely to sink again to the level of that yielding timidity before imposing claimants which characterizes her husband or brothers. No man, except perhaps those gloomy and firm-looking persons who always dine early off the joint at a club, ever gave sixpence to a cabman without a consciousness of doing wrong, and a nervous apprehension of consequences. But a woman would as soon give a cabman sixpence as she would settle an ordinary bill. So, too, their attention to household economy strengthens and hardens the character of women until they dare to engage in single-handed combat with that most fearful of all foes—the landlady of a seaside lodging-house. A poor creature who keeps his silver loose in his waistcoat pocket is not very likely to remonstrate when he is informed that his occasional chop has necessitated the maintenance, night and day, of a kitchen fire sufficient to roast an ox, nor to object when he sees himself charged with an amount of Harvey's sauce that would float his hat. But women rush to the charge, and treat the long neatly-written bill with the same contempt and familiarity of scorn that are exhibited by a suspicious Harvey's sauce that would float his hat. But women rush to the charge, and treat the long neatly-written bill with the same contempt and familiarity of scorn that are exhibited by a suspicious lawyer when he holds up a gambling I.O. U. to the gaze of an indignant jury. Let us admire the courage by which we profit; but, at the same time, we must remark that the habits of household economy often lead to expense in a singular way. The liking to get things cheap leads to the love of bargains, and the knowledge that so many things are useful in a family inspires a hope that the most useless things will come in somehow. Of course, the full price asked for a bargain is never given, and the most disciplined bravery and astute manœuvring are shown in beating down the bargainer. Still, the bargain is bought, and here, for once, the economical woman is less economical than the loose-silvered man. The difference between the two sexes may

here, for once, the economical woman is less economical than the loose-silvered man. The difference between the two sexes may indeed be often stated thus. A man gives two shillings for an eighteenpenny thing he wants, and a woman gives eighteenpenee for a two-shilling thing she does not want.

The advantages of economy have been celebrated since there were poets to sing the praises of simplicity, and satirists to denounce the follies of extravagance. The disadvantages only force themselves on our attention as we reflect a little more closely, and mark the errors, not of the foolish, but of the wise. Good managing must be allowed at once to be a very excellent. closely, and mark the errors, not of the foolish, but of the wise. Good managing must be allowed at once to be a very excellent thing, but people who manage very well generally pay a penalty for their success. They get to think candle-ends. They occupy themselves with petty triumphs, which are of the most infinitesimal value to a being who ought to be capable of spiritual and intellectual enjoyments, and who might certainly rise to an innocent devotion to easy pleasures. The endless care for small savings defeats any rational object for which savings are tesimal value to a being who ought to be capable of spiritual and intellectual enjoyments, and who might certainly rise to an innocent devotion to easy pleasures. The endless care for small savings defeats any rational object for which savings can be made, and the study of economy often ends in a ludicrous waste of time and the cultivation of a simpering vanity. Many of our readers, probably, have read a little book called Our Farm of Four Acres, in which a lady recounts the process by which she and her sister made, as she thinks, the most of a country residence. They did everything in the most indefatigable, laborious, calculating, and successful way. They bought the right sort of cows, and had the right amount of milk, and churned the right quality of butter, and made the sleepy cream awake, and the cold cream melt to exactly the right degree. They fed their pony, and made their hens lay, and baked bread, and fattened pigs as never was done before. If good management is an excellence, they felt that they might stand on their little pedestals of fame and call the world to see how excellent they were. No doubt they succeeded, and, no doubt, their success gratified them if it sometimes bored their friends. But there was, we may guess, a rather heavy makeweight to balance all this superior butter, and cream, and pork. They were obliged to live entirely for their experiments in economy. Day slipped away after day, and year after year, and all they had done was to make more butter and eat more eggs than could have been expected. It is not obvious that a bad manager who had partaken of the humble milk in her tea, and whose pigs had been fattened in the normal way, and had only grown a little less lean as the gardener condescended to abstract rather less meal as a perquisite, would not have had something to say for herself. Perhaps she might have reasonably urged that there are other things lean as the gardener condescended to abstract rather less meal as a perquisite, would not have had something to say for herself. Perhaps she mighthave reasonably urged that there are other things to do with time than to make butter come in the churn, and to thicken the layers of live lard. No man with an approach to sense despises a good dinner, but a good dinner is too dearly purchased if the constituents of the dishes are to form the subject of earnest meditation for hours. So economy is a good thing; but, among the classes who, whether they are economical or not, are sure never to go to bed hungry, there is nothing in the triumphs of economy or in the accumulation of money to compensate for the deterioration of mind and feeling which is almost certain to accompany the pursuit of so trumpery an end as screwing fourpence a week out of the butter bill.

As intellectual education is more widely spread, this is more keenly felt, and persons become more unwilling "to lose life for the sake of the causes of living." It seems better to lay out money on learning and on mental cultivation than to tie it up in

a stocking. And the state of society at present helps this feeling. The old saying that a fortune is more easily saved than got is no longer true. Its truth belongs to a time when each class was shut up in its own narrow limits, when locomotion was difficult, longer true. Its truth belongs to a time when each class was shut up in its own narrow limits, when locomotion was difficult, and the chances of success in remote adventure were extremely small. Now a fortune is much more easily got than saved. The world is open to the enterprising, and if they please they may pick up gold abroad instead of painfully hoarding up copper at home. The habits and notions of families are naturally accommodated to this altered state of things. A prudent father does better by spending his income on his children, so as to give them a fair start, than by neglecting their present advancement in order to prepare for their future needs. His object is not to teach them to save money, but to get it and to spend it rightly; and it is impossible to teach this unless a certain liberality and generous largeness in dealing with money, proportionately to the family income, is openly encouraged. There is, indeed, a sort of idiotic wastefulness by which silly people manage to dribble away vast sums yearly without anything to show in return—that a parent ought of course to prohibit by every means in his power. But the general principle remains, that a fortune should be earned, and not inherited or saved, and that it should be spent with somewhat of easiness and magnanimity. There is one test which will act as a perfect safeguard against too wide a departure from the rules of prudent economy. So long as debt is abhorred, everything is safe. Nothing can excuse debt except unforeseen misfortune; and if there is no debt, an income may be better spent without too much thought than if every item is scrutinized and every penny paid away with a groan. There are also other helps which indirectly bring a family within the range of economy. The mistress of the house is almost sure to keep accounts, and spent without too much thought than if every item is scrutinized and every penny paid away with a groan. There are also other helps which indirectly bring a family within the range of economy. The mistress of the house is almost sure to keep accounts, and the mere fact that one person is so methodical spreads a healthy air of possible frugality over the whole party. The many forms, also, which the open-handed charity of the richer English assumes are constantly teaching us something of the value of money, and oblige us to make some provision for our neighbours in our expenditure. The fading away of the old spirit of family economy is therefore by no means a matter for numixed regret: m our expenditure. The fading away of the old spirit of family economy is therefore by no means a matter for unmixed regret; and if the stupid love of parade, and the desire to seem as rich as somebody else with twice the fortune, did not unfortunately enter so largely into the liberality of modern expenditure, we should see with indifference, and perhaps with pleasure, every family living up to the full extent of its income.

MENTAL STATURE.

THE habit of attempting to weigh and measure individual character in a manner which was formerly but little known, is one of the most characteristic peculiarities of modern habits of thought. Since it became usual, and indeed all but universal, to thought. Since it became usual, and indeed all but universal, to write history and biography upon pictorial principles, the classifications which spring from party or personal predilections have come to wear an unreal and pedantic appearance. Mr. Carlyle has perhaps done more than any other single individual to introduce the plan of looking, as the phrase is, at the essence of men's characters, to the neglect of the accidental phases of opinion or feeling which, by the force of circumstances, may have been associated with them. All his characters are drawn upon the supposition that every individual forms a whole, of which we can predicate all kinds of qualities which do not attach to any part of him in particular, but to the man himself, considered as an indivisible unit. For example, Mr. Carlyle would never say of any man that he had a strong understanding, an imagination

can predicate all kinds of qualities which do not attach to any part of him particular, but to the man himself, considered as an indivisible unit. For example, Mr. Carlyle would never say of any man that he had a strong understanding, an imagination of average power, rather warm affections, a good deal of stinginess, and a most inveterate habit of lying; but if he came across a person whom that description would suit, he would never rest till he had found some point of view in his own mind from which he could take in all the various parts of the man's character as a single well-connected whole, capable of being placed before the world by a few vigorous characteristic epithets.

There is a great deal to be said in favour of the mode of proceeding, when it is carried on by a man of genius. It is incomparably lively and interesting. By the help of something which has no very definite name, but which is to writing what gesture and mimicry are to conversation, it gives much information which is too delicate and volatile to be condensed into precise statements; and it practically enforces what is no doubt a great truth—the fact, namely, that the language by which we describe each other in common life is very incomplete, far less exact than its precision would lead us to suppose it to be, and very likely to lead us to forget that men are, after all, individuals, and not mere collections of qualities. It cannot be surprising that such a mode of viewing character should be extremely popular, not merely because it is new and gives little trouble to the reader, but because it has a strong and direct tendency to exalt the dignity of the writer. To take in a man's whole nature in one single view, and to describe it by a few bold, ingenious, and comprehensive phrases, is a process which implies higher powers, and appeals to wider sympathies, than the mere enumeration and measurement of a number of detached qualities. The process, however, has its weak as well as its strong points. It is a method which places those who employ

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and to test specific inferences, but when the assertions range over the whole of a man's life, and the inferences extend to the whole of his character, it is all but impossible to attack either the one or the other. It is possible to argue the question whether, in a particular instance, Robespierre acted right or wrong; but who can possibly controvert the assertion that he was a "logic-formula"—especially against a man who is so satisfied that he was one, that he has constructed a theory of his whole life and conduct upon that supposition?

The truth is that, as painting can never supersede anatomy, so

whole life and conduct upon that supposition?

The truth is that, as painting can never supersede anatomy, so the study of human beings as individuals can never supersede the necessity for an independent study of the separate qualities which belong to them and distinguish them from each other. For serious and practical purposes, it is necessary not merely to know how people look, and how they affect the imagination, but also why they do so; and though pictorial accounts of human beings, taken individually, certainly suggest the direction which ought to be taken by inquiries of this kind, they do not in themselves satisfy them. Their true value, apart from the pleasure which they give, appears to lie in the fact that they indicate more emphatically than any other process yet discovered, what the points are in any one man which really interest others, and that they thus suggest an examination of the causes by which people are put into a position in which others are attracted to and interested in them.

are put into a position in which others are attracted to and interested in them.

Such inquiries would, of course, range over an immense number of subjects; but it may not be uninteresting, in order to illustrate the scope of the foregoing remarks, to give a single illustration of the sort of topics which they would have to embrace. There is no one subject which Mr. Carlyle so much delights to draw as the hero or great man. He always specifies what may perhaps be called the moral size of his characters, and he has probably never written a line which does not imply more or less directly that there is such a thing as general mental stature, apart from specific power in, or aptitude for, any particular mental quality or exercise. It is impossible to deny that there is a great deal of truth in this opinion. The assertion that Robespierre was essentially a small man, and Mirabeau essentially a large one, does undoubtedly convey a strong impression to the mind, though it is not easy to say in what it consists, and though its limits may be very indefinite. If any one to whom such an impression had been conveyed by the portraits of Mr. Carlyle, or of any similar artist, could succeed in detecting the elements of character which are essential to its production, he would make a very curious and very real addition to our knowledge. The utmost that can be attempted here is to indicate some of the branches of such a speculation. here is to indicate some of the branches of such a speculation.

Of the various classifications which have been made of human Of the various classifications which have been made of human nature, one of the least inconvenient is that which views it under the heads of the reason, the imagination, the feelings, and the will. Whether it is complete or not, it is, at any rate, sufficiently wide to justify the assertion that, if greatness is in itself a specific quality which distinguishes some men from others, it will be traceable in one or more of these departments, or in the relations and proportions which they bear to each other. Taking, then, greatness in its relation to the intellect, what sort of intellect is required in order that a man may be great? That there are some kinds of intellect which, if they do not make a man great of themselves, would do so if they were used (a distinction which in itself would supply matter for a volume), is undeniable; but it is extremely difficult to say in what their specific peculiarity consists. Perhaps one of the most definite, and at the same time most curious, remarks that can be made on the subject is, that some of the powers of the intellect are positive, and scarcely admit of degrees, whilst others which do admit of degrees, and which are of the highest importance, may exist in their greatest force in men whom all the world agrees, and apparently with very good reason, to consider as anything but great. The faculty of logic is an example of powers of the first kind. A man either has it or is without it, and though it is undoubtedly a great convenience, its possession in the fullest measure is consistent with extreme littleness of character, whilst a man might be very great without possessing it. To be logical means very little more than to be consistent, to speak and to think habitually in such a manner that every specific thought can be referred to some more general conception, the truth of which the person nature, one of the least inconvenient is that which views it under little more than to be consistent, to speak and to think habitually in such a manner that every specific thought can be referred to some more general conception, the truth of which the person who thinks is prepared to affirm. If, as is often the case, the specific thoughts are foolish, and the general conceptions absurd, there is no particular good in this gift. Its only effect is that bystanders have less difficulty than they would otherwise have in comprehending the extent of the folly of the person who possesses it. On the other hand, men may be habitually inconsistent, or rather inconsecutive, in their thoughts, and yet have that about them which all the world recognises as great. Some sistent, or rather inconsecutive, in their thoughts, and yet have that about them which all the world recognises as great. Some men are so constituted as to perceive great truths at first hand without viewing them—perhaps without caring to view them—under the form of premiss and conclusion; and thus their assertions take a fragmentary shape, which, though at times great in the very highest degree, cannot with truth be described as logical. If any one will compare the Epistle to the Romans with any of the popular expositions of it, he will see what greatness there may be where there is but little logic, and what littleness may co-exist with perfect consistency.

On the other hand, intellectual qualities which vary in intensity, and of which all men possess a certain quantity, sometimes

appear to produce greatness by their vigour, and sometimes not. That which is called by the general name of force of understanding is an instance of this. As a powerful man is one who can lift a great wei, ht, so power of mind may be said to be that quality which enables people to do with comparative ease what others find it impossible or difficult to do at all. Its principal elements are the power of attention and that of application, which is attention in the active, and not in the passive shape. To be able to direct the thoughts to a given subject, and, according to that most expressive of metaphors, to "turn it over" in the mind, is one thing—to be able to submit the mind passively to that which is presented to it is another. Where the two co-exist in unusual vigour, they may be said to constitute power of mind. In many cases, the mere possession and exertion of this power makes a man great—in others the possession and exertion of of an equal power has not the same effect, or at least is not acknowledged to have it. It probably took at least as much mental labour—as much application and attention—to compose Comyn's Digest as to compose Gibbon's History. Yet, whilst every one acknowledges the greatness of the historian, few people would ascribe greatness to the judge. The most curious illustration of this, however, is to be found in the case of mathematicians. Newton is acknowledged to have been one of the greatest men that ever lived, and Mr. Adams's discovery of the new planet is universally looked upon as a splendid achievement; but the mere intellectual labour—the mental force necessary to reduce the discoveries from which these remarkable men derived their title to greatness from their original condition of conjectures to their ultimate condition of truths scientifically ascertained—probably did not exceed that which many men have put forth in the same branch of learning whose names are principally remembered by being labelled on some formula, like Fermat's or Taylor's theorem. The truth is that in thes

Such is a single illustration of one very small branch of the sort of inquiries which an anatomical study of the problems presented by pictorial historians and biographers would suggest. A complete investigation of the subject would form a very curious speculation, but it would require knowledge which hardly any one possesses. one possesses.

ARMOUR PLATES AND RIFLED CANNON.

ARMOUR PLATES AND RIFLED CANNON.

THE trial of Mr. Whitworth's gun, made at the Nore on Saturday last, fulfilled the expectations which had been reasonably entertained by its inventor. The floating battery. Trusty, had been coated with wrought-iron plates four and a-half inches thick, and these plates were pierced by shot from Mr. Whitworth's eighty-pounder gun at the distance of 200 yards. The oak timber of the ship's side was also penetrated, and the shot was found within the vessel. The iron plates thus pierced are of the same thickness and quality as those used in the Warrior armour-cased frigate now building. The timber sides of the Trusty are also of equal thickness to the Warrior's, though it is stated that the wood is in as bad a condition as in any of the condemned gun-boats. It may, however, be asserted with some confidence, that if these projectiles can pierce the wrought-iron plates, no strength of timber that can be placed behind them will suffice to protect the vessel. Therefore the result of Mr. Whitworth's experiment appears to be, that cannon regains its old superiority over all defences which can be contrived for ships-of-war. Mr. Whitworth's gun and the iron-plated frigates which we are building in emulation of the French, stand upon about the same terms as the heavy batteries and stout oak sides of the line-of-battle-ships of our own and rival navies. It is possible to conceive, and perhaps to build, vessels even stronger than the Warrior, and it is also nossible that Mr. stout oak sides of the line-of-battle-ships of our own and rival navies. It is possible to conceive, and perhaps to build, vessels even stronger than the Warrior, and it is also possible that Mr. Whitworth, or some other engineer, may produce a gun which shall surpass even the tremendous powers which have been employed against the Trusty's sides. We think the latter of these results at least as probable as the former, and therefore we expect to hear less in future of the indestructible vessels which was to expect all ordinary ships of was from off the overest. were to sweep all ordinary ships of war from off the ocean.

The projectile which did such wonderful execution differs from those employed by Sir William Armstrong in one essential particular—namely, that it is flat-fronted. It acts upon the iron plate exactly like a punch, cutting a clean hexagonal hole, and driving the displaced iron before it through the timber which supports the plate. The Armstrong projectiles are pointed, and it is found that they displace the iron of the plates laterally, instead of

driving it straight forward; and thus, although they have greatly damaged and partly penetrated the plates, they have failed hitherto in punching a clean hole through the iron, as has been done by the Whitworth shot. It is open to Sir William Armstrong to use flat-pointed projectiles for his guns; and until he has tried them it may be premature to conclude that he cannot equal the result which has been attained by Mr. Whitworth. Still we have the important fact that these iron-plated vessels, which it was believed could be made impervious to shot, have offered to Mr. Whitworth's gun no greater resistance than the oak side of a three-decker opposes to ordinary heavy cannon. The experiment at the Nore was limited to five shots, of which one passed over the Trusty. Had the gunners been allowed to fire many times, and to aim at the same spot, choosing one between wind and water, we should think that neither the Trusty nor even the Warrior, if subjected to the same trial, would be now afloat. now afloat.

This experiment was conducted in the presence of the First Lord of the Admiralty, who may be supposed to be as capable as other persons of drawing from it the conclusion that it would be a valuable reinforcement to the navy to supply every line-of-battle ship and frigate with one of Mr. Whitworth's guns. We really do not think that even the unlucky Board of Admiralty could go wrong in embracing and acting upon such a determination. The cost, as compared with the result, would not be serious, and the Admiralty might at last congratulate itself on having taken a step Admirately might at last congratulate itself on having taken a step with which nobody could find fault. But the Admirately unfortunately does not, strictly speaking, possess the necessary power. It may build ships and gun-boats in any number, and of any design and quality; but when it wants guns to arm them, it must, in the ordinary course of things, apply to the Ordnance Department of the War Office. But experiments which may have satisfied the Admirately will not necessarily produce any effect in the quarter which must be looked to for decisive action. Fresh and further trials of Mr. Whitworth's and other quarter when may be required before the War Office will worth's and other guns may be required before the War Office will take any sufficient measures to enable the Admiralty to arm the navy as it ought to be, and easily might be, armed. We believe navy as it ought to be, and easily might be, armed. We believe that this is the course of business, and any departure from it would scarcely be contemplated as possible by the official mind. Mr. Whitworth may desire to serve the navy, and the navy may desire to be served by him, but both Mr. Whitworth and the navy must lay in a fund of patience, and await the result of experiments and deliberations which at this moment are probably not begun. We really should be very glad of an opportunity to praise the Admiralty. We should think that within a week they could arrive, if they have not already done so, at a perfectly safe conclusion as to the merits of Mr. Whitworth's guns; and if they then believed them to be as valuable as they now appear to be, they might order a hundred guns to be made as rapidly as to be, they might order a hundred guns to be made as rapidly as possible. This they may do if they have the requisite power, but if they have not, the effective armament of the navy must be postponed until the Admiralty and the War Office have entered upon a course of harmonious and energetic co-operation—which happy result may not perhaps be very soon attained.

result may not perhaps be very soon attained.

We observe that a rival experimenter in artillery challenges a trial with Mr. Whitworth's gun because "it has the reputation of being the best in existence." It would be safe to say that no foreign Power is likely soon to possess equally formidable guns, unless Mr. Whitworth can be persuaded to supply them. And we may also venture to pronounce that the Warrior armourplated ship will be, when finished, the strongest vessel that was ever launched. It is possible that the designer and builder of the Warrior will not admit, until further experiments have been made, that the superiority of offensive over defensive force is so decisive as we have in these remarks assumed. But even supposing this question to be more doubtful than it appears to us to be, it is at any rate indisputable that this country can, if its energies is at any rate indisputable that this country can, if its energies are allowed fair-play, produce both the most powerful artillery in Europe, and also vessels which approach nearer than any others to indestructibility. Need we hesitate to add that the sailors who would direct these guns and manage these vessels would also main would direct these guns and manage these vessels would also man-tain the old pre-eminence of their nation in naval skillandcourage? We possess the most penetrating spear and the stoutest shield, and we can place them in the strongest hands. The armour of divine workmanship was given of old to the first of heroes. But that hero was driven from the field by the arrogance and blind-ness of his chief. Let us not imitate the folly of the Greeks, who went forth to battle without the arms and the valour of Achilles. Let not our authorities alienate from the country's service the most skilful engineers by their procrastination, and the most able wants leaders and administrators who will turn to the best account its wealth, its skill, and its martial spirit. Much will be forgiven to the Admiralty if it now shows itself to be in earnest forgiven to the Admiralty if it now shows itself to be in earnest in this vital matter of arming the fleet speedily with a proportion of the best rifled guns. No reasonable delay will be grudged for the completion of the most elaborate experiments, if only it can be clearly seen that they are conducted in an earnest and impartial spirit. Failure and disappointment have been the ultimate result of many promising innovations in every department of parallel and military counters. of naval and military equipment, and those who are loudest in urging inconsiderate action would also be most vehement in enforcing the responsibility of the authorities for any disasters which might result from the adoption of the measures they had

themselves advocated. Even in considering that deplorable subject of the rotten gun-boats, one cannot utterly forget what denunciations would have been fulminated against the Admiralty dering the Russian war, if a contractor had published a complaint that the building of a vessel was delayed by the interference of Government inspectors. If it should become necessary to prepare for another war, it will be open not only to the Government, but also to the press and to the people, to display greater foresight than they did when Russian aggression disordered the ideas, and proved the weakness of the arrangements, which had come into eviset the distance diving a preference down. into existence during a protracted peace. Every fair allowance will be made for official difficulties, if only capacity and honesty will be made for official difficulties, if only capacity and honesty and diligence are seen to be employed in contending with them. We shall watch the further experiments made with Mr. Whitworth's gun, as a test, not only of the qualities of rifled cannon and armour-plated ships, but also as proving the fitness of the Admiralty and the War Office to direct the country's energies in a contest for life and death. Let us hope that, if the firing at the Nore opened a chink for the admission of daylight into the official mind, a new armour-plate of insensibility will not be riveted on to resist the progress of conviction.

A DAY'S SHOPPING.

THERE is one department of English social life in which the ladies vindicate and preserve what is, perhaps, the solitary privilegium of the sex. To be sure it is one into which the coarser half of humanity has little inclination to intrude. Shopping is much the same exclusive institution as the bath was to the Roman, much the same exclusive institution as the bath was to the Roman, and is to the Eastern ladies. If in the softer months of matrimony, inchoate or impending, any man has ever been beguiled into a day in Regent-street and Oxford-street, he is not likely to attempt a second experiment. Shrewd students of the sex assure us that these occasions are planned with some skill. They are made, of malice prepense, so detestable and intolerable to the gentleman for a set and deliberate purpose. Like the apprentice at a pastrycook's in his first week, he is to be cloyed and satiated for life. There is a plot and contrivance in the whole thing. The lady, married or single—for it is an understood thing among them all, and the bride is carefully trained and instructed by the older matrons in this as in other secrets of matrimony—puts on her prettiest and most it is an understood thing among them all, and the bride is carefully trained and instructed by the older matrons in this as in other secrets of matrimony—puts on her prettiest and most fickle ways. She will and she will not—she chooses only to reject, and bargains for the dear delight of not deciding. Capricious, wayward, and irritable, she will buy everything and nothing—she is just as likely to purchase half a shopful of rubbish which she does not want, as to spend three hours in overhauling a haberdasher's shop and quitting it with the sublime result of a paper of pins. Then the vast variety of pattern and colour admits so spacious a field for caprice and irresolute incapacity of choice; while the pleasant state of hesitation in the fair purchaser as to her objects and wishes, whether she really wants anything, everything, or nothing, is judiciously, not to say maliciously, planned to disgust, once and for all, the husband or the bridegroom elect. When this comic tragedy has once been played out, a second performance is, as it was meant to be, impossible. And the curious thing is, that the haberdasher and his men all enter into the conspiracy. It is their interest to do so. They submit to and encourage all the pretty petulance of the sex in order to secure them for the future. The mysteries of the mercery are hereafter closed to the coarser sex for ever. Clodius himself would not intrude into the modern rites of Bona Dea which are celebrated in those mystic fanes, the "Sponsalia," and the "Emporium of Fashion," the "Tower of Babel," and the "Maisons de Deuil." The haberdasher's and milliner's shop is the Western form of the gynecæum. Women must have their retreats sacred from intrusion, and it seems as though, in one shape or other, in all forms of society, some sacred and unapproachable shrine should be kept for the sex. The British harem, too, has its guardians harem, too, has its guardians-

Matrisque Deum chorus intrat et ingens

An effeminate troop of "paraders," and shop-walkers, and mincing young men, lisping and insolent, insinuating and impertinent, assist at the feminine rites of shopping. As the whole thing has an emasculated aspect, we all suppose that at any rate the cultus has no danger, that the votaries of haberdashery are at least safe, and all that the ladies can do is to waste their time and their money. They are tempted to buy "sweet pretty things" by touters, and in language suitable to the traffic; and if any man of sense gives a thought to what is meant by a day's shopping, it is to dismiss it as a simple bore, which of course he has once tried, and against which he has registered a vow for ever.

But it appears that there are dangers in the very security of the

registered a vow for ever.

But it appears that there are dangers in the very security of the Temple. There are drawbacks on both sides from the unrestrained comforts of shopping en femme libre. The haberdasher asserts that he is constantly robbed by his fair customers; and the customers certainly often have to regret that their chartered freedom from the guardianship of husbands and fathers places them at the mercy of awkward accidents. Messrs. Swan and Edgar seem to say that they have been robbed so often by ladies that they consider shoplifting rather a rule than an exception. At any rate, every lady who goes out for the luxury of a

day's quiet shopping does so at the risk of being looked after and treated as a very possible, perhaps as a very probable thief. Even a house so respectable as that of Messrs. Swan and Edgar admits that they suspect everybody. And from certain rumours it is thought that there are shops of a disreputably cheap and popular kind, in which simulated charges of shoplifting are perhaps the most profitable "article kept in stock." We are by no means hinting that the defendant in the late case, Lecomte v. Hope, had not some, and did not think he had ample cause for making the charge of shoplifting against the poor governess from Wales. But the case is an illustrative one. It is very likely that there is a vast amount of female shoplifting; but the question is, whether the present habits of trade do not hold out a certain sort of premium to shoplifting, and whether the tradesman does not himself indirectly encourage that criminality in his customer which he afterwards suffers from? The whole morale of haberdashers' shops, in nine cases out of ten, is utterly bad. When a shopkeeper advertises that he is selling off at a ruinous sacrifice—that his wares are going at "absolutely a discount of thirty-five and a-half per cent. off the manufacturer's prices"—he does one of two things. Either he is guilty of a deliberate falsification and fraud, and then he invites reprisals—or, if he really is selling goods at this price, he is robbing some day's quiet shopping does so at the risk of being looked after a discount of thirty-five and a-half per cent. off the manufacturer's prices"—he does one of two things. Either he is guilty of a deliberate falsification and fraud, and then he invites reprisals—or, if he really is selling goods at this price, he is robbing some manufacturer. The thing—that is, the selling off on these terms—if possible, is a robbery; if impossible, it is invented as a fraud on the purchaser. The seller invites the purchaser to be an accomplice in a fraud. Now we believe that ladies, as a rule, avoid this class of selling-off shops as they do scarlet-fever or smallpox; but there are bargain-hunters who resort to them. Now bargain-hunters are the raw material of shoplifters. It requires but a little more warping of a woman's moral sense to induce her to prig six yards of lace in a shop where she is asked to buy it at half-price, perfectly aware that it has been—or, at any rate, that it pretends to be—stolen from the manufacturer. The wonderful bargains of the cheap shops and shop-lifting go on together—the one produces the other. Shoplifters are the natural result of "selling off at a ruinous sacrifice;" and it is no wonder that the avowed bargain-hunter is, as a matter of course, suspected to be a shoplifter. The risk run by a woman who haunts cheap shops is that of being always looked after as a shoplifter. The remedy is, of course, to deal at a shop where you are well known; but so long as it is the custom of the sex to run in and out of twenty shops in a morning, hunting for cheap goods, suspicion must be the rule. And where every customer is, as a thing of course, a suspicious character, false charges of stealing are very likely to occur. It is quite possible that haberdashers are not worse tradesmen than their neighbours; but the unprotected female runs considerable risks. Here is the Swan and Edgar case. There was the case of the poor girl who was handed off to the police court from the shop in Oxford-street on a charge, perfectly unfounded, of passing bad halfcrowns, which took place tw

The case of Lecomte v. Hope is a remarkable one. It shows how, when the impression is engrained in a shopman's mind that all his customers may be, and are likely to be, professional thieves, all his faculties of observation, not to say of imagination, are preternaturally sharpened. Undoubtedly, Miss Lecomte's companion had the bad luck to "rummage" Mr. Hope's property into her bag; but an accident was, though distantly, probable. What, however, the shopman did not see, was the significant wink of Miss Lecomte and her friend; what he misinterpreted was the French conversation; and on two points he deliberately contradicted himself in his evidence. It certainly is a very hard measure to the sex if they are to be suspected as The case of Lecomte v. Hope is a remarkable one. deliberately contradicted himself in his evidence. It certainly is a very hard measure to the sex if they are to be suspected as thieves because, while deep in blonde and lace, they indulge in telegraphic or in Gallic talk. Mr. Hope has had to pay eighty pounds in hard cash—not to speak of the contingent damages which are apt to ensue in a case of this sort. But we cannot be very sympathetic over his losses, past or future. He jumped a good deal too rapidly to his conclusions. A respectable lady charged, and in this case most falsely charged, with robbery, might reasonably give, in the confusion of the moment, but a very unsatisfactory account of herself or her friends; and though there was something against her, there was much in her favour. Miss unsatisfactory account of herself or her friends; and though there was something against her, there was much in her favour. Miss Lecomte actually bought and paid for more, and more valuable goods than her friend was suspected of stealing; and though there was something primá facie against Mrs. Blackman, there was absolutely nothing against Miss Lecomte. The moral of the whole is, that if shopkeepers have to be on their guard against lady thieves, ladies have to be most especially on their guard against the imaginative powers of such young gentlemen as are sometimes found officiating as shopmen. MILITARY DEFENCES OF THE COLONIES.

WE stated last week that the members of the Committee which has recently been devoting its attention to this subject are not unanimous in the conclusion at which they have arrived. One of them (Mr. Elliot) dissents from his colleagues, and publishes his reasons for so doing in an Appendix, which is carefully and clearly drawn up. The scheme recommended by Mr. Hamilton and Mr. Godley, who constitute the majority, divides the colonies into two classes. The first is to consist of military posts, in which, for objects independent of the defence of the particular countries in which they are situated, the Imperial Government finds it necessary to maintain garrisons. Malta, Gibraltar, Corfu, Bermuda, and some others, would, fall under this category. The Committee recommend that, so long as these posts are held, they should be fortified and garrisoned, but that, as the wants and wishes of their inhabitants are not consulted in the matter, they should be dealt with exceptionally, and not included in any general scheme of colonial contribution. The second class would comprise all the rest of our colonies, whose system of defence Mr. Hamilton and Mr. Godley propose to base on two simple principles—colonial management and joint contribution at one uniform rate.

With regard to the first class, it may be observed that the

base on two simple principles—colonial management and joint contribution at one uniform rate.

With regard to the first class, it may be observed that the Committee does not definitely state that they ought to be exempt altogether from contribution. As matters stand at present, all of them, with the exception of Hong Kong, Bermuda, and Gibraltar, contribute something towards Imperial expenditure. Some—as Ceylon, for instance—pay a very considerable proportion of the entire outlay. Even the Ionian Islands assist, though of course to no very great extent. It is hardly probable that Mr. Godley and Mr. Hamilton intend to liberate this class from all burden in respect of their defences. Mr. Elliot is decidedly of opinion that we are not called upon to do so. He thinks that there is no injustice in accepting a contribution from such of them as contain prosperous communities, so long as the amount falls short of the cost of the number of troops which they would require for their own purposes. Indeed, he considers that some—as for example, the Mauritius—might almost be expected to do more than they have hitherto done. But where does the first class end, and the second class begin? To determine the degree in which each particular colony is of importance to the general strength of the Empire is not a little difficult, and unless we confined the first class rigidly to those posts which are simply military posts, and are occupied purely for Imperial purposes, we should find it nearly impossible to draw any line between it and the second. It is quite clear that Malta, Gibraltar, and the Ionian Islands stand to us on a different footing from most of our other possessions. But if we include under the same head with them Mauritius and Ceylon, why not include Jamaica too? The fact is, that the only practical division which can be made would be one which distinguished between colonies properly so called, and those stations which cannot be termed colonies at all. Malta, Gibraltar, and Corfu are military outposts, occupied merely have not succeeded indrawing an intelligible and broad line between the two classes whose existence they propose to recognise. The difficulty of drawing such a line suggests to us the question whether that scheme is not preferable which obviates the necessity of drawing any line at all. Upon Lord Grey's principle, the Imperial Government at home would uniformly be at the expense of such military occupation as it deemed requisite for Imperial purposes in each particular case. Any further military expenditure would be defrayed by local funds. The obvious advantage of such a scheme is, that it can deal with all our foreign possessions alike, and that it is just as capable of being applied to the case of Gibraltar as to that of New Zealand or of Victoria.

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alike, and that it is just as capable of being applied to the case of Gibraltar as to that of New Zealand or of Victoria.

But the part of the Committee's proposal which treats of the remainder of our colonies is by far the most important. If carried into effect, it would entirely remodel the whole of our colonial system. When we have said that it possesses the merit of simplicity, we have given it all the praise to which it can be considered to be entitled. Serious objections may be brought against both of the principles upon which it rests. That colonial defences should be placed under colonial management is neither desirable nor indeed possible. A similar plan was, it is true, suggested some years back by the Governor of New South Wales. Lord Stanley's reply pointed out the real obstacle to its adoption. He remarked that to carry into practice such a theory would be to compromise the independent action of the central Government of the Empire. "If every colony," he wrote, "were to assert a voice in the matter of their own defences, I do not see in what manner the general defensive arrangements of the Empire could be conducted." The Committee quote his answer, and endeavour to show that it rests upon a single difficulty, which may easily be removed. They suppose him to mean that if each colony settled the amount of its military force, it might ask for more troops than the mother country, having to consider the general defence of the empire, could spare. This difficulty they propose to obviate by leaving in the hands of the Imperial Government the power of refusing, if necessary. This difficulty they propose to obviate by leaving in the hands of the Imperial Government the power of refusing, if necessary,

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the application of the local Government. Without such a concession, indeed, it is plain that Mr. Hamilton's and Mr. Godley's proposal would be absolutely extravagant. But Lord Stanley's objection is much more radical and trenchant than they imagine. It is not merely that in some particular instances the local colonial authorities might embarrass the Home Government by an unreasonable application—it is that the local colonial authorities can be absolutely no judges at all of the part which the rities can be absolutely no judges at all of the part which the troops maintained in their own special colony are to play in the general defensive arrangements of the empire. It might very possibly be requisite to maintain a force at Jamaica which was not designed to defend Jamaica only, but to be a nucleus for the defence of all our possessions in that part of the world. It might not be requisite to keep any troops at all at Newfoundland, though nobody could wish to see Newfoundland undefended. The Imperial garrison in each colony itself. It is kept there in the execution of a general plan in which the defence of the colony may or may not be the chief feature. Nor are the Committee even justified in supposing that this difficulty, which they take for granted is the only difficulty in their scheme, would seldom arise. It is possible, though it is far from certain, that in peace each colony might be anxious to reduce the Imwould seidom arise. It is possible, though it is far from certain, that in peace each colony might be anxious to reduce the Imperial force below its present strength, and to trust to local efforts for defence. But in war it is notorious that the reverse will always be the case. In all the struggles in which England has always be the case. In all the struggles in which England has been engaged for the last century, the agitation in our colonies has been extreme, and they have never ceased to urge upon the Central Government the dangers incidental to their isolated position. Mr. Hamilton's and Mr. Godley's proposition would be the source, not only of increased panic, but, as a natural consequence, of increased clamour and embarrassment.

From a financial point of view, the adoption of these principles might, perhaps, in the case of some individual colonies, diminish the cost of their defence. It might possibly do more, and diminish the sum yearly expended by the Imperial Exchequer on our colonies as a whole. But when the Committee have proved this much, they are far from having proved the superior economy.

on our colonies as a whole. But when the Committee have proved this much, they are far from having proved the superior economy of their plan. If each island and each settlement is to be thrown upon its own resources, and to rely upon its own efforts for protection, the Exchequer would, in some instances, save; but many colonies which are now sufficiently defended without troops at all would have to pay proportionately more. A moderate system of centralization is necessary for the defence of every empire in the world in these days of rapid lecomotion. rate system of centralization is necessary for the defence of every empire in the world in these days of rapid locomotion. It is certainly less expensive, according to all maxims of political economy, than any other, and we suspect would be found to be infinitely less expensive in practice. The Committee might as well attempt to show that it would save money to diminish the fortifications at Portsmouth, and to oblige the Town Council at Brighton to keep up a local arsenal out of municipal funds, as to prove that it would be good economy to compel each colony to manage its own defences. If Jamaica cost us less, the Leeward Islands would have to spend more. If fewer troops were kept in Nova Scotia, more would have to be kept in Newfoundland. But, apart from its economical bearings, Mr. Godley's and Mr. Hamilton's recommendation has not even the merit of being consistent with the principles they lay down at starting. They tell us that, except in some few cases, the British navy alone can afford that, except in some few cases, the British navy alone can afford an adequate protection to our colonies. England, they say, ought to trust more to her maritime supremacy, and less to local and detached military fortifications. To encourage the colonies to defend themselves, is, then, on the Committee's own showing, to defend themselves, is, then, on the Committee's own showing, to encourage them to lean upon a broken reed. The Committee must either sacrifice one or other of their two principles. Ether the theory of local self-defence must go, or that of local self-reliance. If the colonies rely upon their own local efforts, they will be badly defended. If they equip and pay some few companies of troops themselves, but are obliged in the main to look to our navy for protection, what becomes of their self-reliance? reliance P

look to our navy for protection, what becomes of their self-reliance?

Supposing that our present system of military organization bore hardly upon the colonies, the Committee would at least have some solid reason for objecting to it. But the collateral advantages of maintaining a connexion between the Imperial army and the colonies are obvious and considerable. At present all the honours and distinctions which this country confers upon military merit are open to the British colonist. It is true that they might still be open to him even if the alterations suggested by the Committee were carried into effect; but he would find it much more difficult to avail himself of the opening. Nova Scotia, for instance, has given us two of the best officers in the British army at the present day. Had Nova Scotia been thrown upon its own resources, their talents, instead of being employed in the service of the Empire, might have been confined to the narrow field of colonial enterprise. Our intimate connexion with the colonies is productive of mutual benefits in innumerable ways. Not a link of it ought to be broken or impaired without grave cause. But, objectionable as is the first of Mr. Hamilton's and Mr. Godley's two principles, the second is infinitely more so. We have already noticed in a preceding article some of the chief reasons why we should be sorry to see one uniform rate of contribution imposed upon our colonial possessions. Uniformity, as Mr. Elliot remarks, is good, but it is only good when circumstances are uniform. Supposing that a rich colony is able and willing to contribute more than the

average proportion towards its military expenditure, in return for troops which it particularly requires, are we to reject the offer for the sake of uniformity? Supposing that a poor colony is specially in want of soldiers, but can only contribute a small is specially in want of soldiers, but can only contribute a small sum towards their maintenance, are we to refuse the application in order to carry out a rule the only advantage of which appears to be its arithmetical elegance? Mr. Godley and Mr. Hamilton reply that poor nations, like poor individuals, must be content to be less well off than richer ones. The answer to this is plain. A poor colony is not a poor nation—it is a poor part of a rich nation. If it were not entitled to claim assistance from the parent country in proportion to its need, it would not be a colony at all. From the ages of remote antiquity, every Empire has considered it at once a duty and a privilege to defend those of its young settlements abroad which are incapacitated by circumstances for self-defence. It is our own interest to protect our struggling no less than our prosperous possessions. A colony which is now the poorest of all may some day very well be the most remunerative. The proposal of the Committee would effectually check emigration. Who would care to colonize did he not feel that in the furthest quarter of the globe very well be the most remunerative. The proposal of the Committee would effectually check emigration. Who would care to colonize did he not feel that in the furthest quarter of the globe his life and his property were to be still a care to the general commonwealth, and that England was not likely to calculate the amount of assistance she would afford to her enterprising sons according to the sum which they could pay for it? Colonists are the pioneers of civilization. In most cases their exertions are

sons according to the sum which they could pay for it? Colonists are the pioneers of civilization. In most cases their exertions are amply rewarded by their own success. But where circumstances render their task either particularly perilous or particularly unproductive at its outset, it is neither right nor expedient that we should farm out our protection to them at the same rate of interest as if they were thriving, wealthy, and secure. We are glad, therefore, to find that Ministers are not prepared to indorse the doctrines propounded by the Committee. In the debate of Thursday, the fallacies of the Report were exposed by the representative of the Government who took part in the discussion; and it was clearly intimated that the War Office disapproved in toto of the extravagant opinions of its subordinates.

One part—and one part only—of Mr. Godley's and Mr. Hamilton's Report seems to us deserving of serious attention. It is that which treats of the extraordinary expenditure involved in the maintenance of our establishment at the Cape. The direct objects of Imperial concern, as the Committee state, are the two harbours at Table and Simon's Bay. The colony neither affords a great field for emigration nor for commerce. The population is to the entire population of our colonies as 1 to 30. The exports and imports are to our entire exports and imports from the colonies as 1 to 25 and 1 to 22 respectively. Yet the Cape absorbs more than a fifth of the whole force allotted to our colonial settlements, and occasions more than one fourth of the whole direct military expenditure. Whether a different administrative system would effect any change for the better in what seems at first such a monstrous anomaly, or whether England must consider herself repaid by the security which her possession must consider herself repaid by the security which her possession of the Cape affords to trade in general, it is not for us to say. It is sufficient to do what both the Committee and Mr. Elliot have done—namely, to point out the facts and to commend them to the reflection of the Colonial Department.

THE ROYAL ACADEMY.

THE ROYAL ACADEMY.

THE works of lady-artists at the Royal Academy, though not numerous, are very creditable. We have already alluded to Mrs. Ward's clever little picture of a child learning to walk, besides which there are one or two others deserving notice. Miss R. Solomon has a scene from the adventures of Peg Woffington. In this (269) as in Mrs. Ward's (334) there are some faults of colouring, though of a different kind. In Mrs. Ward's picture there is a certain hardness of manner, and perhaps too great predominance of red and yellow tinges. In Miss Solomon's, the colours want clearness and force, and there is a prevailing duskiness of tone. Both pictures, however, have the merit of possessing expression. In Miss Solomon's composition the figures are skilfully arranged and well drawn, and Peg Woffington's countenance, with its merry and good-humoured expression, suits her part well. Mrs. H. T. Wells, in her "Departure—an episode in the Child's Crusade, 12th century" (466), has chosen an admirable subject. It is strange that so many painters should persist in the vain attempt to illustrate the creations of Shakspeare and other great poets, when history affords them themes so excellently suited to their purpose as this which Mrs. Wells has chosen. Of the execution of the picture it is difficult to form a confident opinion, as it is hung in a very unfavourable position, but the expression of the woman who is bidding adieu to the poor little crusader is forcible and natural. "What we still see in Chelsea Gardens" (323), by Mrs. Robbinson, might easily be mistaken for the work of Maclise. Unfortunately, it resembles that illustrious artist's style in colour rather than drawing. The drawing is, indeed, by no means absolutely bad. The general effect of both figures is correct, and their attitudes are unconstrained. The limbs, however, do not stand a very close inspection, and Mr. Maclise would, we should imagine, be especially anxious to disclaim any share in the drawing of the left arm of the woman who is convers

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neved theme. The governess is, as usual, tall, graceful, and refined—the unjust mamma is stout, ill-tempered, and richly dressed—the children are ugly and malevolent looking little demons. Still the cleverness of the painting is undeniable. Every line has meaning and force, and the colouring is very good. Mrs. F. L. Bridell's study of a little girl "Asleep among the Ruins—Rome" (425), is designed with good taste and simplicity of manner, and well executed.

It is extremely difficult to criticise with much confidence the portraits. In the first place, a critic can, in nine cases out of ten, know nothing of the accuracy of the likeness—which is, after all, the most important point; and, in the second place, he is liable to be unduly biassed by the character of the subject. The majority of persons who are not in the habit of examining pictures carefully, but simply trust to first impressions, are caught by the pretty faces, and never discriminate between the heauty majority of persons who are not in the habit of examining pictures carefully, but simply trust to first impressions, are caught by the pretty faces, and never discriminate between the beauty of the subject and the skill of the painter. More curious observers, on the other hand, are apt to fall into an opposite error, and give an undue preference to odd and ugly faces. There can be no doubt that it is much easier to produce a striking and characteristic head, where the features are marked by any singularity, than where they are simply regular and handsome. It would be much easier to produce a tolerable imitation of an ugly old man's head, in the manner of Rembrandt, than of a Madonna in the manner of Raffael. Between these two prejudices in favour of beauty and ugliness, an artist who has had the misfortune to paint commonplace heads comes off rather badly. It is the more difficult to do him justice, inasmuch as it is impossible to avoid something like a feeling of indignation at seeing so much valuable space occupied by such profoundly uninteresting productions. Yet all this is rather hard on the painter. The Academy Exhibitions are the only legitimate means of advertisement which a portrait painter possesses, and, natural as it is to turn away with impatience from the foolish faces which greet us, it would probably prove very inconvenient to the public to be deprived of this opportunity of comparing the styles of different artists. Some effort should therefore be made, in reviewing the Academy portraits, to disabuse the mind of first impressions, which are much less trustworthy in their case than in that of other paintings.

Mr. H. Phillips seems to us to excel in unaffected originality. in that of other paintings.

reviewing the Academy portraits, to disabuse the mind of first impressions, which are much less trustworthy in their case than in that of other paintings.

Mr. H. Phillips seems to us to excel in unaffected originality of manner. "Dot" (39), is a full length of a little girl with a litten in her arms. Nothing can be prettier than the contrast between the simple unconscious expression of the child's face and the excited eyes of her unfortunate pet as it struggles to escape from her too-affectionate grasp. Besides this, Mr. Phillips has portraits of "The Rev. G. K. Holdsworth" (172), "The Countess de Grey and Ripon" (388), and "Lawrence Oliphant, Esq." (515), all of which have the same merit of truthful simplicity. The two best heads, as far as quality of flesh and roundness of contour are concerned, seem to us to be "J. M. Macleod, Esq." (515), all of which have the same merit of truthful simplicity. The two best heads, as far as quality of flesh and roundness of contour are concerned, seem to us to be "J. M. Macleod, Esq." (136), by J. J. Napier. The latter of these is a very vigorous piece of painting. Mr. Knight's heads are, as usual, very good. He errs, if at at all, on the side of sacrificing roundness and softness in aiming at force of expression. The high lights seem in some instances to be put in too abruptly, and with insufficient attention to the quality of the surface to be represented. In the eye, for instance, he commonly introduces a hard, sharply defined speck of white paint, without any attempt to blend and soften the edges so as to give liquidity of surface. For a similar reason the fleshy parts of his countenances have in places a hard appearance, as if they had been chiselled. Mr. Richmond has made a wonderful advance. His colouring, which last year was very faulty, is now very fair, and in some instances very good. "Mrs. Hook" (335), appears to us to be one of his best likenesses. Mr. Grant has several works, of which the most conspicuous are the portraits of Henry Villebois, Esq. (12), and o

No little embarrassment seems to be caused to artists by the introduction of a taste for blue backgrounds. So long as crimson was in vogue, a curtain afforded an obvious and unfailing resource. Crimson, however, has gone out, and blue or green have now their turn, and for these colours—or, at any rate, for the former of them—it would seem that a curtain is not thought suitable. Painters are accordingly put to many shifts to get over the difficulty. To a background of sky there is this objection—that, whereas by day the blue is too light to answer the purpose

in most instances, by night there would not be sufficient light on the countenance of the siter. Mr. Sant has, as we have seen, solved the question by the introduction of a dark blue storm—but this expedient is clearly not always available. Mr. W. H. Hunt has hit upon an extremely ingenious device, and has secured the desired colour by the use of a background of blue bottle-glass. This, in the particular instance, does well enough, and suits the florid colours and coarse features of Mr. Hunt's striking head, "Henry Wentworth Monk" (510); but it is clear that bottle-glass can never be generally employed, and there seem to be insuperable difficulties in the way of a very extended use of blue backgrounds. How far this colour is desirable is a disputed point which we presume the "Blue Boy" has not absolutely settled. It certainly is a becoming foil, when employed in moderation, to fair and florid complexions, and it is evidently as a foil that Mr. Sant has introduced his dark blue clouds. One strong point in favour of blue is that it involves the ostracism of as a foil that Jar. Sant has introduced his dark blue clouds. One strong point in favour of blue is that it involves the ostracism of curtains. With green, artists have less difficulty, as this is a common enough colour in furniture and hangings. To some heads, as to Mr. G. F. Watt's "Duke of Argyll" (347), a quiet green forms a pleasant and harmonious setting.

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The display of miniatures is this year very much cut down, but those which have found admission are seen to great advantage. Two well-known artists, Messrs. Wells and Moira, are the chief contributors. Between the merits of these two, it is very difficult to decide. The latter, perhaps, is seen to most advantage where extreme softness and delicacy are wanted—the forte of the former is character and expression. "The Countess of Waldegrave" (892), by Mr. Wells, is a very striking painting. Mr. Moira has several portraits of members of the Royal family. Mr. Richmond has in the miniature-room a fine crayon head of the Earl of Elvin (720). family. Mr. Richmond has in thead of the Earl of Elgin (740).

head of the Earl of Elgin (740).

Of the limited space afforded by the sculpture-room the most has been made by skilful arrangement. Mr. Foley exhibits his diploma work, "The Elder Brother in Comus" (960). This is a slight and graceful figure, with the head half turned round, in the attitude of one listening. The figure is poised so as to give a remarkable air of elasticity and lightness. Mr. Westmacott's "Gentle Maiden bending to the Water" (948) is graceful, but the posture is one which could only be endured for a few seconds, and is, therefore, not well suited for a statue. As a general rule, the best attitudes for sculpture are those in which the body naturally rests for a short time; and the only exceptions are those which, though transient, are frequently repeated so as to produce in some degree the effect of permanency. The attitudes of a man running or throwing a quoit are of this latter kind. The posture, on the other hand, of a person stooping to fill a jug with water is momentary, and is not repeated. Of the other works in the room, Baron Marochetti's "Portrait Statuette" (949) and Monti's "Town and Country" (954) seem to have most originality.

ROYAL ITALIAN OPERA, COVENT GARDEN.

originality.

ROYAL ITALIAN OPERA, COVENT GARDEN.

THE public has had unusual facilities of late for making acquaintance with the merits and peculiarities of the greatest Italian operatic composer. Il Barbiere, Semiramide, and La Gazza Ladra are excellent specimens of his style—representing, as their subjects severally do, three distinct phases of dramatic composition. The Barbiere, with its exuberance of merriment and practical jokes, may almost be characterized as a farce. Semiramide is heavily, not to say dismally, tragic, and La Gazza Ladra is essentially melodramatic in its treatment and incidents. It may fairly be objected to Rossin's treatment of subjects so essentially different that he has shown but little sympathy with the varied requirements of the text—so that indeed, in many cases, the music alone would be no index whatever to the situation of the drama. The same florid divisions, the constant recurrence of the same alone would be no index whatever to the situation of the drama. The same florid divisions, the constant recurrence of the same form of passage, the same artifices for producing effect, may be observed throughout. These, indeed, are defects which we must be prepared to allow before entering upon a discussion of any of this master's compositions, but they are nobly redeemed by a never-failing fund of geniality and intrinsic beauty. Rossini may be a mannerist, but he is none the less a genius, and that of a very high order, elevated far above the Donizettis, the Bellinis, or the Verdis of the modern Italian school. That he should, whether from pique or indolence, have allowed a genius naturally so prolific to remain unproductive for so great a lapse of years, is a sin against art which it is impossible to defend.

La Gazza Ladra was given for the first time this year at

is a sin against art which it is impossible to defend.

La Gazza Ladra was given for the first time this year at Covent Garden on Saturday evening last, and again on Tuesday, with Madame Penco as Ninetta, in the place of Madlle. Lotti della Santa, who took the part last season. M. Faure, a welcome substitute for Signor Debassini, made his first appearance as Fernando, and Madame Nantier Didiée, who has been so long wished for, made her rentrée in her old character of Pippo. The opera is a delightful one to hear at Covent Garden. Depending more upon general effect and pièces d'ensemble than, perhaps, any other of Rossini's operas, it is only at an establishment where so much attention is bestowed upon these important particulars that so good a representation as that which we have to chronicle could be attained. The Ninetta of Madame Penco must have immensely raised her as an artist in the estimation of connoisseurs. Though in some few points, perhaps, inferior to that of Madlle. Lotti della Santa, in the most important

particulars we think it is to be preferred. The voice is fuller and richer than, according to our recollection, was the case last year; and it tells to much more advantage, and with infinitely more legitimate effect, in Rossini's graceful phrases than in the tearing passages of the *Traviata*. Always exact and careful in the concerted music, Madame Penco proved herself, not only an accomplished vocalist, but a steady and intelligent musician. Her execution of the trying *roulades* and *floriture* which are scattered with such profusion throughout the score, if wanting the finish and delicacy which we are accustomed to hear from such artists as Madame Miolan Carvalho and Alboni, was invariably clear and certain, and her intonation, as far as we could detect, without a flaw. These are most valuable qualities, and by their combination go far to produce (what is particulars we think it is to be preferred. The voice is fuller qualities, and by their combination go far to produce (what is unfortunately a rarity in the operatic world) a genuine Rossini singer—an artist who, with great natural gifts of voice, must unite an amount of cultivation and a musical intelligence of a far higher order than is required for the more ordinary impersona-tions of the Italian stage. Madame Penco's acting was through-out most careful, and, with certain limitations, to be commended out most careful, and, with certain limitations, to be commended as effective. In the first act, however, and before the complication of the drama fairly commences, her conception of the character wanted simplicity, and partook too much of the tragedy queen in style; for instance, in the scene where the Podesta becomes somewhat too particular in his attentions to Ninetta, her indignation was not that of an unsophisticated village girl, but of a virago. She has apparently taken Madame Grisi as her model in her reading of the part, who, if fault is to be found with what has always been considered the best Ninetta the stage has seen, used to err in the same direction. When once, however, she was fairly launched upon the tragic element of the drama—during her accusation, in the judgment When once, however, she was fairly launched upon the tragic element of the drama—during her accusation, in the judgment scene, and also in that in which Ninetta is led to execution—little fault was to be found except perhaps that she was somewhat too studied and mechanical. The well-known "Di piacer" was extremely well sung; and at the end of the piacer" was extremely well sung; and at the end of the first movement, with its graceful horn accompaniment, an elaborate cadenza was introduced, and executed with a precision and firmness which at once decided all doubts as to Madame Penco's powers of successfully carrying through the arduous part she had undertaken. We may also instance the duet with Fernando in the first act, "Per questo amplesso," the duet with Pippo, "Ebben per mia memoria," and the prayer, "Deh! tu reggi in tal momento," as all excellent in their way.

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"Deh! tu reggi in tal momento," as all excellent in their way.

We confess, after the extremely favourable impression we had received of M. Faure's powers in the part of Hoël in Meyerbeer's Dinorah, to having been somewhat disappointed with his Fernando. The continual tremolo (peculiarly a fault of French vocalization), which is not so objectionable in M. Meyerbeer's music, goes far to destroy the character of the more flowing phrases of the Italian master. That he can avoid this defect he proved by his execution of some few passages—for instance, the slow movement of the duet with Ninetta in the first set, mentioned above, and in which his really fine voice and stance, the slow movement of the duet with Ninetta in the first act, mentioned above, and in which his really fine voice and finished style produced most excellent effect. He executed, however, most of the music better perhaps than it has been done since the days of Tamburini, and is a most welcome improvement upon M. Debassini last season. His acting and "make up" are excellent—a little allowance, perhaps, being made for a tendency to stalk too much about the stage.

Nothing can be said of Signor Ronconi's Podesta which has not been uttered over and over again—unqualified praise and admiration for his exquisite humour and comicality, and deep regret for his unfortunate defect of intonation. The popular trio, "O nume benefico," was in fact completely ruined from this latter cause, and, to use theatrical slang, did not get a hand. The small part of Pippo was most admirably sustained by Madlle. Nantier Didice. Her drinking song in the first act was capital; and the charming duet with Ninetta, "Ebben per mia memoria," in which a double cadence was introduced of rather original construction, was worthy of Alboni. Her acting, too, throughout was lively and spirited, showing a determination to do thorough justice to, if not an unimportant, at least a subordinate part. Tagliafico, as Fabrizio the farmer, was all that could be wished; and Madame Tagliafico made an excellent representative of the bustling farmer's wife, Lucia. We should recommend her, however, to endeavour to add a few years to her age when she next makes herself up for the part. The opera generally is very efficiently performed, the overture having of course been unanimously encored at both representations. The finale to the first act, the judgment scene, and the procession to execution were all admirable specimens of executive Nothing can be said of Signor Ronconi's Podesta which has cession to execution were all admirable specimens of executive and scenic effect, if we except a very decided faultiness of intonation on the part of the tenors in the chorus on Tuesday evening, in the movement which immediately follows Ninetta's address to Heaven.

Operatic attractions and novelties are crowding fast together. The Huguenots is promised immediately at both houses, with the strongest casts the respective establishments can produce. Madlle. Lotti della Santa is to appear next week at Her Majesty's Theatre in Verdi's Ernani, and Weber's Oberon is promised shortly at the same theatre, with Titiens, Alboni, Mongini, Everardi, and other efficient artists. A brisk competition is going on, and the public is reaping the benefit.

REVIEWS.

MISSIONARY LABOURS IN EAST AFRICA.

DR. LEWIS KRAPF, the author of this very interesting D volume, has laboured as a missionary in East Africa for nearly twenty years. He was born in the neighbourhood of Tübingen, and was receiving his education there when, at the age ritibingen, and was receiving his education there when, at the age of fifteen, the desire to become a missionary seized on his mind. He subsequently went through a long course of instruction and study at the Missionary College at Basle, and at length, when twenty-six, was appointed to take part in a mission to Abyssinia. He and his companions reached Tigre, the head-quarters of the mission, in safety, but the influence of the Roman Catholics was too strong to allow Protestant teachers fair play in Abyssinia, and Dr. Krapf directed his efforts to the neighbouring Christian kingdom of Shoa, and to the semi-Christian tribes that lie to the south. Ultimately he determined to devote himself to the heathen tribes still further south, and to approach them from the east coast. He accordingly proceeded to Zanzibar, and thence to Mombaz, in the neighbourhood of which settlement he, in conjunction with another German missionary named Rebmann, established the station of Rabbai Mpia; and there he remained several years, working, with few signs of external success, among a race of savages named the Wanika. We have thus in this volume the record of labour and adventure in two distinct fields of enterprise. We have a picture of the bastard Christianity of of enterprise. We have a picture of the bastard Christianity of Abyssinia and its tributary kingdoms, which is now the only relic of the once thriving African Church; and we have an account of the relations which European teachers find they can hold with the wild heathen of the centre. Dr. Krapf is not a man of intellectual power or cultivation; and as he wishes to give information that may be practically useful to future missionaries, his pages are encumbered with an endless succession of the uncouth names of African places and tribes. The details of sionaries, his pages are encumbered with an endless succession of the uncouth names of African places and tribes. The details of the book are therefore very hard reading, but its general results suggest, and in some measure answer, questions which are of the deepest interest. It is, indeed, impossible that a faithful account of what a missionary has done should ever fail to furnish materials that will be important and stimulating to a reader. Apart from more purely religious considerations, there is no intellectual problem more absorbing than the power of modern Christianity to embrace the heathen world in its fold. We may easily see a thousand signs that the influence which missionary labours exercise is not all on one side, and that the Christianity of Western Europe is powerfully affected by the thoughts forced on us by familiar contact with the heathen. Of course this tells much more strongly in India, and in countries where heathen religion and philosophy are by no means contemptible, than in regions where, as in East Africa, the natives are very little better than the beasts of the field, and where Christianity has first to breathe into the people the soul that it afterwards purposes to educate. The decision, for example, of the great question raised by the military rulers of the Punjab will necessarily act on the popular religion of England for centuries to come. What they aim at is really a mitigated Mohamedanism. They wish to impose Christianity by the power of the sword. If they fail, they will only be defeated by the English people being taught to sift the doctrine of toleration to the bottom. If they succeed, we may be sure that the appetite of a nation that has once abandoned itself to the delights of religious conquest will grow with the food it feeds on.

Dr. Kranf deals with a humbler subject, and deals with it in a grow with the food it feeds on.

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Dr. Krapf deals with a humbler subject, and deals with it in a humble way. Still there is much to be learnt from his book. It would be difficult to find a volume which cuts more completely across the silly popular platitude that missions to the heathen are useless, and that wise men would confine themselves to our own heathens at home. It is strange that if a man goes merely to hunt, or to make geographical discoveries, he is loudly applauded by the very people who speak slightingly of missionaries. To bring home hundreds of tusks, and teeth, and skins, or to show where a river rises and what is the altitude of a mountain range, is thought a noble achievement; but to have or to show where a river rises and what is the altitude of a mountain range, is thought a noble achievement; but to have ascended these unknown heights in order to give the greatest of blessings to the men who live there, is thought quixotic and derogatory to the wisdom of civilized man. The real facts are just the other way. Missionaries are the best of explorers, and the surest—because, if they are honest and wise, the most innocent—of political agents. The passion for foreign travel, for arduous physical trials, and for a life among the haunts of uncivilized man, is almost irresistible in many European minds. There is not the slightest reason why this desire should not be gratified, although those who feel it also feel pity for the fallen and miserable condition of the savage, and believe that the Gospel was not exclusively intended for whites in easy circumstances. Dr. Krapf and his colleagues have rendered the most valuable assistance to Captain Speke and the other chief explorers of Eastern Africa, and, by their own journeyings and their own inquiries of the natives, have largely contributed to the most important geographical discovery of modern times—namely, that the centre of Africa is not occupied, as was formerly thought, by a

^{*} Travels, Researches, and Missionary Labours in Eastern Africa. By the Rev. Dr. Lewis Krapf. London: Trübner. 1860.

chain of mountains, but by a series of great inland lakes, some of which are hundreds of miles in length. Hardly any one discovery has thrown so much light on the formation of the earth's surface as this. The Protestant missionaries, too, are acting as pioneers for the incoming of English and German adventurers, who will be sure, before long, to turn their attention to a field of colonization and enterprise so rich in natural treasures as Central Africa. They are keeping open for us a fair share of the great field which the French and the Roman Catholics are hastening to occupy. We do not view with the slightest regret the efforts and the success of the Romish Church in subduing the heathen, and we cannot for a moment contest the right of France to do as we do, and make her influence felt and her name known where profit is to be won by the experiment. But we may reasonably wish that Protestantism should have fair play, and should not be prematurely excluded by the earlier predominance of a creed which is invariably rendered intolerant by success. We also know enough by this time of the views on commercial matters which prevail in France, to be sure that French occupation means the exclusion of English manufactures and the prohibition of English trade. These East African missionaries are therefore doing us a considerable service by taking possession till we come; and, under the system of missionary organization which is now being developed, they take possession in a very real and indisputable way. The plan which Dr. Krapf and his friends earnestly recommend, and which they have partly worked out, is the establishment of missionary posts at even distances from each other, and connected by a chain of regular and methodical correspondence. The several groups of missionaries will therefore not suffer henceforth from the dangers and weakness of isolation, and their temporal as well as their spiritual influence will be proportionately increased.

Few books, again, could exhibit more clearly the happiness and dignity o

Few books, again, could exhibit more clearly the happiness and dignity of a missionary's life. Dr. Krapf is not a clever or a learned man—he does not even see many of the intellectual difficulties and problems that encompass a missionary's path; but he is a sincere and humble believer, patient, indefatigable, and courageous. We may, therefore, place entire confidence in his assertion that his life as a missionary has been full of happiness. No man could deceive himself less as to the results of his mission. He owns that he worked through a very long and anxious time at one of his stations without any further visible effect than the partial conversion of a cripple. But the missionary who is above the petty hypocrisy of pretending that he has achieved a miraculous success, learns to look into the remote future, and to enjoy it almost as if it were present. Dr. Krapf sees East Africa as it may be after centuries have rolled away, and this cheers and ennobles him. The two most elevating occupations of man are the preparation for his own future in another world, and the preparation for the happiness of after generations in this world. Unfortunately, the first object too often puts the other out of the mind of the missionary. He wants to make a good score for himself. He likes to chalk up the number of Bibles he has left behind him in his bedchamber, or bribed his tent-bearers to use as waste-paper. If it is objected that he has done no good, he replies that he has done his best, and the issue is not with him. The heathen may or may not be converted, but he personally has placed a good work to his credit. There is nothing of this sort in Dr. Krapf. He acknowledges that constant personal familiar intercourse is the only way of touching and enlightening the heart. But he observes that everything must have a beginning, and that the value of a missionary's labours cannot be ascertained until he has long mouldered in the dust. And when we pass from the spiritual to the temporal side of a missionary's calling, we find from

It is impossible to read this volume without having forced on us the great question of the suitability of Protestantism—or, at any rate, of Protestantism as it appears in Western Europe—to barbarians. We do not venture to pronounce any opinion, but it is evident that a religion so unceremonial is under the great disadvantage of being very far removed from the minds to which it is submitted. As a matter of fact, we find that where the direct action of Western Protestants does not extend, Christianity becomes more and more a matter of forms and observances as the people are ruder. In Greece, for example, there is seen a most zealous and rigorous attention to the fasts and ceremonies of the Church, combined with an absolute indifference, not only to the spiritual, but even the moral side of Christianity. A Greek would cut a throat for sixpence who would rather commit suicide than eat meat in Lent. Dr. Krapf found that the observance of outward rites was carried still further in Abyssinia. The fasts there are so numerous that about three-quarters of the year are spent in fasting, and the consequence must be that a spare diet is the ordinary living of the people is considered as religiously profitable to them. The great

advantage which the teachers of religion derive from this is, that they thus provide their disciples with something to do. This is a much more important effect of a ceremonial religion than any influence which its occasional splendours or artistic contrivances can exercise on the imagination. If converts are not spiritual, they long for something to do. They want some visible sign to themselves—some direct active effort that may convince them they are in the right road, and fill up the void in their minds. Protestant missionaries seem to have only one definite observance to offer them. They can make them keep Sunday. They can insist that there shall be one day in the week when the natives shall do nothing. The usefulness of Sunday in this way happens to fall in with the erroneous notions of the day in which most Protestant missionaries have been brought up; and whenever an observance is insisted on, it is much simpler to insist on its being carried out in its utmost strictness, and on all dispensatory refinements and distinctions being abandoned. It would be hopeless to expect a negro to understand the niceties of an English Sunday. How could he possibly comprehend that it was wrong to set common riddles on Sunday, but right if the question or answer brought in a Scripture name jocosely—that it was right to sell fish up to ten o'clock, a.m., but wrong to sell milk after nine—that it was wrong to read a story in a book, but right to read it if copied in a newspaper—that it was wrong to ride a horse, but right to spend an hour in the stable stroking it? The negro mind is simply incapable of appreciating these subtleties, and therefore the Sunday is set before him as a day of absolute cessation from work and amusement. We do not quarrel with this. We may have authority, or we may be under a necessity, to treat him as the Jews were treated, and to give him, in the early stage of his training, a Jewish Sabbath. But it is evident that this question of the forms and observances to be imposed on the heathen deserves th

bonds of the taught, and a con'usion should brevail between that which is obligatory on Christians and that which may be expedient for the heathen.

There are also two other questions which are raised by the history of Protestant missions, and on which Dr. Krapf's book throws some little light. The first is, whether it is expedient and desirable to begin by converting the chief men of the country; and the second is, whether it is a gain or a hindrance that missionaries should marry. We know that the triumphs of the early Church over barbarian heathenism were almost entirely won by the process of converting the chiefs, and persuading the chiefs to order their subjects to be converted en masse. We also know that some of the most signal failures of missions have arisen from the hostility of the native rulers. Romanist missionaries, again, almost always try to begin with the men in authority. They get hold of the King, if possible, and, if not, they attempt to convince the priests that Christianity is the correct form or expression of the creed they are working, and that it would be much more profitable and right for them to work Christianity instead. Dr. Krapf rejects this method of proceeding for reasons which, abstractedly, are unanswerable. He says, and very truly, that conversion is a spiritual change, not to be effected by temporal authority; that the humblest slave has a soul as much as the proudest King; and that the great thing is to produce, not a great nominal effect, but a small real one. We may observe, however, that even missionaries have a weak spot in their breasts, and that Dr. Krapf displays a slightly inconsistent exultation when, towards the end of his volume, he has to recount how a new sovereign of missionaries, Dr. Krapf did more than express an opinion; for he heard that a German lady had come out to Cairo to marry another missionary, who had died, and so, as she was not wanted in the way she had intended, Dr. Krapf married her himself. He tells us that he was convinced he should do much mor

THE LIFE OF CAPTAIN BROWN.

THE singular history of the outbreak at Harper's Ferry is sufficiently familiar to every one, but probably few people in this country have any very definite notion about its leader, Captain Brown—or, as he was familiarly but pretty generally called, Old Brown. A short life of him which has just appeared may not have many other merits, but it has at least the recommendation of giving as much information about the man as is likely to be cared for in this country, whilst it throws a good

* The Public Life of Captain John Brown. By James Redpath. London: Thickbroom and Stapleton. Boston: Frazer and Eldridge. 1860. Abolitio John Puritan 1620. necticut his fath indeed which, was em sent mo applied orders; studies, years a became period does no the yes not, say in a mo lature" into th establi wards obscur took p been from taken fightin their i proper with p what s tomie, in son enemy casion the di travel States consp it. I friend resolu ment and w scure longe news appea difficu it. I a tho

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deal of light upon the character of the most extreme section of the

Abolitionist party in America.

John Brown was the fifth in descent from Peter Brown, a Puritan carpenter, who landed at Plymouth in the Mayflower, in 1620. He was born in 1800, at a place called Torrington, in Connecticut, and passed his infancy in the State of Ohio, of which his father was one of the first settlers. The most interesting, and indeed the only unaffected, part of his biography is a letter which, in the year 1857, he wrote to a lad to whom he had taken a fancy, and which gives an account of his early life. He was employed in looking after his father's cattle, and was often sent more than a hundred miles through the wilderness with herds of them, when he was twelve years old. A little later in life, he applied himself to theology for a short time, with a view of taking orders; but his eyes were too weak to allow him to pursue his studies, and he accordingly occupied himself for many subsequent years as a tanner and a wool-dealer, and between 1820 and 1854 became the father of twenty children, by two wives. During this period he seems to have been strongly opposed to slavery; but it does not appear that he took any very active part in attacking it, till the year 1854, when he went with several of his sons to Kansas, not, says Mr. Redpath, his enthusiastic biographer, to settle there, but "to fight the battles of freedom." Kansas was at that time in a most curious condition. What was called a "Bogus Legislature" was elected in 1856 by the Missourians, who crowded into the Territory for the purpose, and passed severe laws for the establishment of slavery; and an opposition Legislature was afterwards set up at Lawrence by the Abolitionists. A vast deal of obscure quarrelling, varied by occasional fights and murders, took place between the Abolitionists and the Slavery party; and Brown, whose sole object in going to Kansas appears to have been fighting, got together a party of men who, to judge from Mr. Redpath's somewhat confused story, seem to have taken the field on their own account with the view o Abolitionist party in America.

John Brown was the fifth in descent from Peter Brown, ingining the Southerners whenever and wherever it might suit their inclination to do so. They found means to gratify their propensity by fighting two or three insignificant skirmishes with parties of Missourians who appear to have been on a somewhat similar errand. In one of these, which the enthusiastic Mr. Redpath dignifies with the name of the Battle of Osawatomic, Brown contrived, by posting nearly thirty men in ambush in some underwood, to kill and wound sixty or seventy of the enemy before he retired. One of his sons was killed on this occasion, and this circumstance undoubtedly deepened his hostility enemy before he retired. One of his sons was killed on this occasion, and this circumstance undoubtedly deepened his hostility to the men and the system against which he was fighting. After the disturbances in Kansas were over, Brown appears to have travelled about in various parts of the Eastern and Northern States, agitating against slavery, and trying to form a sort of conspiracy for the purpose of organizing an armed attack upon it. Amongst other things, he called "a secret convention of the friends of freedom," at Chatham, in Canada, where a string of resolutions was adopted, by which a sort of provisional Government was constituted for the purpose of the abolition of Slavery, and which seems—though its object is, perhaps designedly, obscurely expressed—to have been intended to provide for a prolonged servile war in the Slave States. The convention met in May, 1859; and till October in that year Brown seems to have passed his time in active practical preparations for the insurrection which he proposed to effect in the summer.

The account of Brown's enterprise, as it was given in the newspapers at the time of its occurrence, was so wild, and appeared to imply such hopeless rashness, that it was difficult to understand how a sane man could have planned it. But Mr. Redpath's account of the matter, foolish as it is in a thousand ways, throws considerable light on the nature of the scheme.

difficult to understand how a sane man could have planned it. But Mr. Redpath's account of the matter, foolish as it is in a thousand ways, throws considerable light on the nature of the scheme. Harper's Ferry is a town of about 5000 inhabitants, situated at the confluence of the Potomac and Shenandoah rivers. It is 57 miles from Washington, 80 from Baltimore, and 173 from Richmond, the capital of Virginia. At no great distance lies a range of mountains with which Brown had for many years been intimately acquainted. There is in the town an arsenal belonging to the United States, and usually containing 100,000 or 200,000 stand of arms. Brown's plan was to seize the arsenal and town, capture a certain number of the principal inhabitants as hostages, and carry them off to the mountains. He meant to exchange his prisoners for a certain number of slaves, and he hoped to be joined by the slaves in the mountains, and thence to carry on a guerilla warfare against all slaveholders. It is obviously very difficult even to conjecture with any sort of confidence how far such a rising might have extended, or what would have been its results; but it is scarcely possible to doubt that they might have been extremely serious. In fact, the enterprise failed entirely from the want of promptitude of its leader. With twenty-two followers—seventeen whites and five blacks—Brown marched into Harper's Ferry in the evening of the 16th of October, eight days before the time originally fixed for the enterprise. He took possession of the arsenal without resistance, and with equal ease made prisoners of about forty of the inhabitants as they left their houses in the morning. Instead of retreating with them into the mountains according to his original plan. Brown lingered on for made prisoners of about forty of the inhabitants as they left their houses in the morning. Instead of retreating with them into the mountains according to his original plan, Brown lingered on for the rest of the day at the arsenal, occasionally exchanging shots with individuals in the town. In the course of the day, parties of militia marched in from the neighbourhood, and towards evening no less than 1500 men, with some marines and cannon, were collected there. On the following day, a general attack was

made on the position of the insurgents, which was almost immediately carried—the hostages were set at liberty—and Brown was taken prisoner, severely wounded. Two more of his sons lost their lives on this occasion. He was shortly afterwards tried for reason, and executed.

their lives on this occasion. He was shortly afterwards tried for treason, and executed.

Such was the career of this singular man. He would seem to have been both brave and honest in a very high degree, but he was in all respects a most dangerous person; for he had the most unhesitating conviction of the absolute truth of his own opinions, and an equally strong determination to do at all hazards whatever might be necessary to carry his views into effect. His biography is, however, remarkable on independent grounds. If it were not for the extreme seriousness of some of the reflections which it suggests, it would probably be entitled to the unenviable distinction of being, without exception, the most absurd book that has ever come even from an American press. Mr. Redpath was apparently at one time, if he is not so still, an Abolitionist editor, and his book is put together—for it can hardly be said to be written—in that strange style in which American editors arrange the news in their papers. Every chapter is divided into a number of different parts, to each of which is prefixed a conspicuous heading in capital letters, intended to attract and excite curiosity. Thus, in the space of a very few pages, we have Spolls of Ware—Complicity of Slaves—Capture of the Arms—Fearful Charge on an Armed Log Cabin—John Brown's Carpet Bag; and all this penny-a-lining is mixed up in the strangest way with what is intended for transcendental sublimity. Mr. Redpath is thoroughly determined that, if he can make him into one, John Brown shall be a hero of the most ultra-Carlylese type. The following is a specimen of the sort of stuff with which the book is crammed from end to end:—"When John Brown walked, he never turned to the right nor left. With a solemn earnest countenance he moved straight on. and every one he met made way for him. So in his ideas. end:—"When John Brown walked, he never turned to the right nor left. With a solemn earnest countenance he moved straight on, and every one he met made way for him. So in his ideas. He felt that he was sent here... for a divinely pre-appointed purpose—to see justice done, to help the defenceless, to clear God's earth of the Devil's lies in the shortest time and at any cost." Whenever we hear of "God's earth" and "the Devil's lies," we know what is coming. Of all the tawdry toys that grown-up children play with, none is so offensive, and few are capable of becoming so dangerous, as the wretched cant which teaches that a man may make himself into a hero simply by having a pigheaded determination to do something to which the rest of the world objects. The effeminate admiration which men who claim the title of philosophers are apt to express for mere decision and picturesque energy of character, however ignorant and narrow-minded it may be, is one of the most convincing of all proofs picturesque energy of character, however ignorant and narrow-minded it may be, is one of the most convincing of all proofs of their essential imbecility. That Mr. Emerson should have said that "John Brown was the truest hero-man he had ever met," is just what might have been expected of him. A man who passes his life in talking nonsense is just the sort of person to admire an energetic criminal. He may be expected to estimate men exclusively by their picturesqueness, and almost always does so. Mr. Redpath has gone a step beyond this. By way of acting up to his model, and putting some life into the cant which he learned to write, he grows specifically bloodthirsty and anarchical on his own account and in his own person. The following extracts show the fatal effect that a showy dialect may have on a brain too weak to care for anything but excitement and picturesqueness:—"Kagi went on the southern side of Little Osage, and called at several houses for the purpose of rescuing slaves. turesqueness:—"Kagi went on the southern side of Little Osage, and called at several houses for the purpose of rescuing slaves. But he failed to find one until he reached the residence of David Cruse. That robber of God's poor children, on learning the purpose of the party, raised his rifle to fire at it, but was shot dead before he pulled the trigger.". . . . "I do not intend to pollute my pages with any sketch of the lawyer's pleas. They were founded on an atrocious assumption, for they assumed (as all lawyers' speeches must) that the Statutes of the State were just; and that therefore, if the prisoner should be proven guilty of offending against them, that it was right that he should suffer the penalty they inflict. This doctrine every Christian heart must scorn."

If Slavery is ever to be made a perpetual institution. Captain

If Slavery is ever to be made a perpetual institution, Captain Brown and Mr. Redpath are just the sort of men who will do it.

666.*

NE of the complaints which Lord Ebury's clients are fond of urging against the Liturgy is that it excludes the Apocalypse from the regular course of lessons. This mysterious book is, in fact, their favourite study; and almost all the theological acumen they can be said, as a school, to possess, has been devoted to its interpretation. Taken as a test of their exceptical powers, their success in this pursuit has not been very satisfactory, for it has generally ended in their levelling at the particular "black beast" of the moment all the hard names with which the prohetic denunciation liberally supplies them. And it must be phetic denunciation liberally supplies them. And it must be frankly admitted that the practice of calling your adversary a "woman in scarlet" or a "little horn" is, in point of politeness, a great improvement on Luther's practice of calling him an ass and a fool. The enthusiastic study of the book is almost con-

TO OHPION. A Dissertation on the History of the Beast. 'By M.C. Trovilian. London: Wertheim and Macintosh. 1858.

^{*} On the Sign χξτ. Rev. xiii. 18. By M. C. Trevilian, Esq. Bath: inns and Goodwin.

fined to this single extravagant clique. The mass of the Christian world are content with St. Peter's dictum that no prophecy is of private interpretation, and are confirmed in their estimate of the Apostle's sagacity in laying down that rule by the chaos of hopeless contradictions which seventeen centuries of interpretation have contrived to collect. The outer world, therefore, takes but little cognizance of the vicissitudes of Apocalyptic science. It is not a subject on which we touch very willingly, for it is not easy to gibbet a profane and silly commentator and yet escape the imputation of trenching on the sanctity of the subject-matter. But it is good sometimes to make an excursion into the dark and crooked alleys of educated superstition, which lie more densely crowded around us than many optimists like to believe, in order that we may not imagine that railroads and penny papers will necessarily clear fanaticism off the earth. Moreover, after Mr. Bryan King's recent proceedings, it is necessary to re-establish

crowded around us than many optimists like to believe, in order that we may not imagine that railroads and penny papers will necessarily clear fanaticism off the earth. Moreover, after Mr. Bryan King's recent proceedings, it is necessary to re-establish an equilibrium of puerility, lest one section of the Church should become envious of the other.

Mr. Maurice Cely Trevilian, from a careful study of the mystic number 666, has come to the conclusion that Louis Napoleon is the Beast. We are not disposed to quarrel with this conclusion, which, though expressed in undiplomatic language, very much coincides with our own view upon the subject. But no one who simply admires the result can form any conception of the difficulties through which it has been reached. The first perplexity consisted in the awkward fact that no conxing could induce the letters which form the name of Louis Napoleon to give, when added up according to the Greek numeration table, the number 666. This is a difficulty which other commentators have never had to meet; for they have been content with casting about till they found some name, connected more or less closely with the polemical aversion of the day, that would satisfy the puzzle. Thus, the contemporaries of Irenœus found out the words Aarenos; and Bishop Newton found out the Hebrew word Romiith. But, as Mr. Trevilian had made up his mind that Louis Napoleon was to be the result, this liberty of choice was not open to him. He overcomes the difficulty by a process which is at once highly creditable to his own ingenuity, and demonstrative of the plasticity of Apocalyptic calculations. He first constructs a theory about what he calls the power of the unit. According to this theory, the units in the Arabic numeration-table are drawn out to millions, and no further, and this extreme limit of drawing out he calls the utmost power of the unit. The number 1, for instance, is drawn out till it reaches 1,000,000 is the utmost power of 6. He unit, has been prematurely cut short, and that billions are vut short, and that billions are cruelly used in this matter. However, from the above theory it necessarily follows that 6,000,000 is the utmost power of 6. He then assumes—for here there is a gap in the argument which he skips lightly over—that 666 was only intended to represent the utmost power of 6, i.e., 6,000,000. Having by this simple process got rid of one number and substituted another, he proceeds to make use of his acquisition. Louis Napoleon, he says, was elected by 6,000,000 votes, and is the representative of that number; and, as Sir W. Miles, in Parliamentary language, is the member for Somerset, so—it is our author's own illustration—Louis Napoleon is member for 6.000,000. Therefore he is the Beast—Q. E. D. He suggests the difficulty that the Emperor was subsequently elected by 8,000,000, but he answers it by pointing out that his uncle was elected by 4,000,000, and that between these two last numbers 6,000,000 is the mean. And this number has still further advantages. The numbers expressed by the consonants in the word Napoleon make up 6,000,000 if multiplied together; that is to say, $\nu \times \pi \times \lambda \times \nu = 50 \times 80 \times 30 \times 50 = 6,000,000$.

Napoleon make up 6,000,000 if multiplied together; that is to say, $\nu \times \pi \times \lambda \times \nu = 50 \times 80 \times 30 \times 50 = 6,000,000$. But then the difficulty arises, that this mystic number is itself a very doubtful reading. Instead of 666 ($\chi \xi \tau$), Griesbach reads $\xi_{1\pi} = a$ combination of figures which make up no whole number, but which represent 60, 16; and the early Christians preferred the reading 616 ($\chi_{1\tau}$). This last variation our author dismisses as "a specimen of an early tendency to torture and wrest the text of Scripture in a conceited and irreverent zeal for discovery." as "a specimen of an early tendency to forture and wrest the text of Scripture in a conceited and irreverent zeal for discovery."

The early Christians, therefore, may be considered as put down; but of Griesbach's reading the author makes his profit. He is in no way embarrassed by the apparent truism that only one of these two readings can be the true one. On the contrary, he strictly maintains that both the readings are inspired. "Are we to suppose that the inspired writers only made one copy of their writings?" And, answering the question in the negative, he proceeds to point out that probably the inspiring Spirit dictated one day, by way of a copy, a statement wholly different from that which he had dictated the day before—a view of inspiration which we beg to suggest for the consideration of Professor Jowett. The object of this duplicate issue of revealed truth is, we are told, to prevent too great curiosity among His people—a providential arrangement which, in Mr. Trevilian's case, has, we regret to say, attained a very limited success. But this theory of inspiration is not advanced without a cause. The letters in the name of Louis Napoleon, if added together, make up the number 1066. Our author accordingly takes Griesbach's reading of £15 — splits it into 60, 10, 6—takes the 10 out of the middle and puts it at the beginning—and then reads, according to the Arabic system, 1066. beginning—and then reads, according to the Arabic system, 1066. In this way, Louis Napoleon is again the Beast, Q. E. D. If any captious personshould suggest that the author has no right, accord-

ing to the orthodox practice of prophetic enigmas, to take the number 10 out of the middle and put it at the beginning, hisanswer is ready—that the very fact of its being in the middle shows that it has the place of dignity, and ought to be at the beginning. Was not our Saviour crucified in the middle between two thieves? Does not Mr. Payne (the illustrations are all our author's) write up his name over his shop "Silversmith, Payne, Jeweller?" And does not the figure 10 consist of a pillar and a circle, the two most perfect of forms? And is not "its superiority undoubted over the jagged and crooked things that are found in its company?" Some of Mr. Trevilian's friends appear to have been staggered by the consideration that the validity of this ingenious reasoning depended entirely on the peculiarities of the Arabic system of numeration, which did not prevail in Christendom for a thousand years after the date of the prophecy. But he is not shaken by such difficulties as these. They rather confirm his faith. The genuineness of the prophecy, he observes, is conclusively proved by the inspired foresight of the Apostle in accommodating his symbol to a system of numeration which none of his disciples would be able to apply to it for the space of a thousand years. We must say that this implies on the Apostle's part a very barbarous disregard of their waste of time and ingenuity. Other of the author's critics have tried to trip him up by pointing out that, for the purposes of his calculation, he has treated the last o in Napoleon's name as an omicron, whereas the Italian pronunciation of it clearly proves that it should have been an omega. But as he powerfully observes, "Why is the Holy Spirit to be bound by the rules of classical orthography?"

We are far from wishing to protect Louis Napoleon from any brickbat which can be legitimately heaved at him. But the disadvantage of Apocalyptic Billingsgate is that it is a game which two can play at. Supposing any of the divines who still look upon the Emperor as the eldest s

interpreters, make up the well-known number. Suppose we try Lord Stanley's name, as near as it can be rendered, putting the Greek article before him to introduce him:—

δ Στανλει = 666

A perfectly clear case, we are afraid! We trust his Lordship, with the frankness becoming a great prophetic character, will lose no time in purchasing and wearing an M.B. waistcoat. But it is not just to confine our researches to the Opposition side of the House. If Mr. Kinnaird is beginning to chuckle over Mr. Spooner, we beg to assure him that his mirth is premature. We can find the number of the Beast even upon the Treasury Bench. It will not surprise Mr. Trevilian to learn that Mr. Gladstone is the Minister we select for the experiment. The only difficulty that troubles us is, that the exigency of the figures forces us to put the article into the feminine gender. We have done our best to escape the necessity, but in vain. We are very sorry; we are not responsible for the perversity of the Greek alphabet, and we must leave our readers to make what inferences they please. The Greek spelling, of course, cannot represent the mute terminal e: ό Στανλει = 666 mute terminal e:-

ψ Dadotov = 666

We beg to recommend these two solutions of the enigma to Mr. Trevilian and Dr. Cumming, as giving two quite as satisfactory Antichrists as any that the ingenuity of Christian cabbalists has ever contrived to screw out of St. John.

We wish that our space permitted us to conduct our readers a little further in the company of this brilliant specimen of the Apocalyptic clique. He opens to us some gratifying vistas of our future national career. We are, first, to suffer a renewal of the Continental blockade, but, after that, we shall be blessed with the alliance of the Jewish nation—though the brightness of our prospects in that respect is rather dimmed by the qualification that that alliance will not take place till the Jewish nation has become holy. All the earth is then to be given to England, and the Papacy is to be destroyed by the advance of the British army from Hindostan.

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BARTHOLOMEW COTTON'S HISTORY.

THE Master of the Rolls is, we would fain hope, learning wisdom by experience. The volume now before us is neither worthless in itself nor yet badly edited. It is, on the contrary, a really valuable chronicle, and it has been dealt with very carefully by the scholar who produces its *Editio Princeps*. We have had already to speak favourably of Mr. Luard's earlier contribu-tion to the series, when he put forth the three Lives of Edward the Confessor—one of them the most valuable thing that the series tion to the series, when he put forth the three Lives of Edward the Confessor—one of them the most valuable thing that the series has yet contained. Mr. Luard still continues to deserve our good word, notwithstanding some human errors. He does not, indeed, give us anything to put him, as an interpreter of history, on a level with Mr. Shirley or Mr. Brewer; but then it cannot be denied that Mr. Shirley and Mr. Brewer only won their fame by a little outstepping the dull duty of an editor. Still, with these volumes and Mr. Luard's before us, and with the promise of the Saxon Chronicle by Mr. Thorpe, we are just now inclined to be in fairly good humour with this unfortunate series. The Brut y Tywysogion, edited by "the Rev. John Williams ab Ithel," lies, indeed, before us, and, even unopened, it impresses us with a vague dread of the Archdruid and his brethren. The awful names of Hingeston and Stevenson also loom upon us in the distance, not only in the list of works already printed, but also in that of works in the press. Still, sufficient unto the day is the evil thereof. Just now our immediate provision is not to be despised. We will only express a passing wonder that, if Welsh books are to be edited, the combined Celtic scholarship and historical judgment of Mr. Basil Jones are not pressed into the public service; and we would ask more definitely whether we are ever to have the Life and Letters of St. Thomas of Canterbury from some one who can read and construe the text, and can speak of its subject without either sneeding or advanting? Scholars scent to he some one who can read and construe the text, and can speak of its subject without either sneering or adoration? Scholars seem to be subject without either sneering or adoration? Scholars seem to be crying out for such a book in various directions; and it would never do to tell us in return that Dr. Giles has edited them already. For, have not Bishop Gibson and Dr. Ingram edited the whole of the Saxon Chronicle? Has not a part been already reprinted at the public cost? Yet, very properly, these things are no impediment to Mr. Thorpe giving us a complete edition of the whole. And even the fact that Mr. Kemble had edited most of the Charters contained in the Abingdon Chronicle didnot at all prevent Mr. Stevenson from trying his luck upon them also.

The Chronicle of Bartholomew Cotton is valuable as containing an important contemporary narrative of part of the history of the great thirteenth century, and still more, perhaps, as illustrating mediæval notions of literary property. In those days there was no law of copyright, and plagiarism was not denounced as a sin against the republic of letters. When every book was as a sin against the republic of letters. When every book was in manuscript, each copy was, in some sort, a separate work, or at least a separate edition. A literary monk wanted a history of England, or a history of the world, perhaps not without a side-glance to the benefit and the opinion of the outer world, but primarily for the use of himself and his own brethren. Such a work, to be perfect, must go back to the creation of Adam and Eve, or, at all events, to the landing of Hengest and Horsa. But the earlier more of the stowy had been eleved we recorded over and the earlier part of the story had been already recorded over and over again, and there was no occasion for Brother Matthew or the earlier part of the story had been already recorded over and over again, and there was no occasion for Brother Matthew or Brother Bartholomew to spin out the whole story afresh from his own brain. He took such MSS as he had—he copied from one, or compiled from several, as far as they went, and continued the story down to his own time. The writers who are not mere chroniclers, but historians of a high order—such men as Otto of Freisingen and Lambert of Herzfeld—put in front of their useful and practical labours a dull compendium of all things from the Creation or the Birth of Christ. But though the monastic annalist constantly copied the earlier portions of his text, he did not always servilely copy. His object was to make a book to be used. Where he thought his predecessors had done well, there was nothing to do but to let well alone and merely transcribe; but if he thought he could improve on them by omission, addition, or alteration, he freely did so. Sometimes he abridged, sometimes he worked two narratives into one, sometimes he touched up the style according to his own notions of elegance, sometimes he entered on the more daring task of improving the matter according to his own notions of politics. Matthew Paris sat down with Roger of Wendover, and those whom Roger copied, before him. But Matthew was a Radical, while some of his authorities were Conservatives. In our days, Mr. Bright would hardly think of reconstructing Sir Archibald Alison—preserving the facts, but altering the sentiments. Yet this is really very much what Matthew began to do as soon as the work of transcription brought him to times near enough to his own to awaken his controversial feelings. Where there was no particular call to very much what Matthew began to do as soon as the work of transcription brought him to times near enough to his own to awaken his controversial feelings. Where there was no particular call to alter, Matthew did not alter; but when he found William Longbeard represented as a traitor, he cut that out and put in an account of his own, representing him as a saint. So, too, in the account of King John's coronation, Matthew puts into Archbishop Hubert's mouth a speech in favour of elective monarchy which we believe occurs nowhere else. Perhaps the speech was his own invention, perhaps he really had some traditional authority for it; but, in either case, its insertion marks the character of the

man, and the way in which he and his age dealt with other people's books.

The Chronicle now before us is a remarkable instance of a book partly transcribed, partly original. Mr. Luard divides it into seven parts. Excluding a mere transcript of Geoffrey of Monseven parts. Excluding a mere transcript of Geoffrey of Monmouth, Bartholomew's own compilation begins with 449. Part I., from 449 to 1066, is chiefly copied, but often abridged, from Henry of Huntingdon. Part II., 1066-1258, is chiefly compiled from Roger of Wendover and Matthew Paris, with occasional portions from other writers. Part III., 1258-03, is "a simple transcript of part of the Chronicle of John de Taxster;" but Part IV., 1264-79, is a real contemporary history, "entirely original, and of very great importance." Part V., 1279-84, is again copied from one Everisden, a monk of St. Edmundsbury. Part VI., 1285-01, is again original; and so is the concluding Part VII., 1285-91, is again original; and so is the concluding Part VII., 1291-8—the only part, if we rightly understand Mr. Luard, which he supposes to be Bartholomew's own composition. The Chronicle, then, as we have it, is a strange mixture of worth-less and valuable matter. Contemporary narratives of important periods of history are tacked on to wretched abridgments of the facts of earlier days, copied and distorted for the ten thousandth time. How should such a book be edited? Mr. Luard has an opinion of his own, which we will let him put forth in his own words. in his own words :-

Luard has an opinion of his own, which we will let him put forth in his own words:—

That so valuable a history as that of Bartholonew de Cotton, contemporary in the strictest sense of the word, should have slept in MS. for so long (with the exception of the few extracts given by Wharton), in spite of the expressions which have from time to time been made of the advisability of its publication, will seem strange at first sight; for this historian has not, like some others, been seen at one period, and then been lost sight of, till accidentally found buried in one of our great MS. collections; but the work has been always accessible, and has been consulted with more or less advantage by almost all historians who have concerned themselves with original documents, from Tyrrell to Pauli. One cause may, perhaps, be found in the fact of so considerable a portion of our author being derived directly from obler chronicles; and thus, while there are minute additions and alterations even in the early portions sufficient to make it appear scarcely advisable to omit them altogether, it may yet have been thought by some that to publish an abridgment of a weil-known work, where the language is frequently injured, and the facts occasionally distorted, by the carcless way in which the abridgment is made, was in no way to be desired. And thus the way in which our author has hurried over his account of the early history of England, and, indeed, almost the whole work till he comes to his own time, has prevented the very important record of the last years of Henry III. and of the greater portion of the reign of Edward I. from seeing the light.

It was suggested to me, after I had observed how entirely the beginning of the present history is an abridgment of one earlier chronicler in particular, that it would be well to print such portions of the MS in a smaller type than that which has hitherto been employed in the works of the present series. And on thinking over this, it occurred to me that if this plan of separating new matter

As far as we, who only use the books when they are printed, are fit to judge, this plan of Mr. Luard's seems to us not a little sensible and useful. Nothing is drearier than, in a Chronicle printed in the ordinary way, to wade through passages which you have read over and over again elsewhere, in order to come to the particular insertions which make the work worth consulting at all. Mr. Luard's way of editing altogether delivers us from this grievance.

It may be as well to give a specimen or two of the kind of alterations made by Bartholomew or his fellows in the texts they copied. Roger of Wendover thus records the consecration of Edmund, Archbishop of Canterbury, in 1234:—

Eodem anno in ecclesia Christi Cantuarize consecratus est Eadmundus, cjusdem ecclesia electus, a Rogero Londinensi episcopo, in archiepiscopum Cantuariensem Dominica qua cantatur "Lastare Hierusalem" que tanc fuit quarto nonas Aprilis, præsente Rege cum tredecim episcopis; et sodem dis missam cum pallio solemniter celebravit.

Roger's chronicle ends the next year. To him Archbishop Edmund and Bishop Roger were simply an Archbishop of Canterbury and a Bishop of London. But long before Bartholomew's time Edmund had become a canonized saint of the church; and though Roger, we believe, never obtained that honour at Rome—where he had no reason to be loved—yet, in the popular belief of Englishmen, his tomb in St. Paul's was the scene of many miracles. Roger of Wendover's text is therefore altered thus:—

Consecratus est Edmundus, Deo d'Hectus, a Rogero Londoniensi episcopo, sanctus a sancto, in archiepiscopatum Cantuariensem dominica qua cantatur "Lutare Jerusalem," que tunc fuit iiii nonas Aprilis.

We may observe also the omission of some of the little details of the contemporary writers, which had lost their interest sixty years later, and the change from the ancient form "Eadmundus" into the more modern "Edmundus."

Mr. Luard is a careful editor, but he has made a few slips here and there. Thus, where Bartholomew, in his Liber de

^{*} Bartholomei de Cotton Monachi Norwicensis Historia Anglicana: (A.D. 449-1298.) Necnon ejusdem Liber de Archiepiscopis et Episcopis Anglia. Edited by Henry Richards Luard, M.A. London: Longmans. 1859.

Episcopis (p. 355), gives a list of the English counties, we find—
"Vicesima quinta Wincestreschire, in qua est episcopatus
Wygornia." We should of course read "Wircestershire;" the Wygornia." We should of course read "Wirestershire; the confusion of the two names being one of the commonest mistakes both of transcribers and editors. A more curious mistake of the same sort occurs in M. Hippeau's edition of Garnier's Life of St. Thomas (p. 79):—

Et ovec lui l'evesque i vint de Wirecestre; Et li quens d'Arundel, et Ricard de Wincestre.

Bekker's edition (p. 40) gives the true reading, "Richarz d'Ivecestre"—i.e., Ilchester in Somersetshire, written Ivelchester till very lately.

In p. 371 we find "Bonefacius, natione provincialis," and just after, "Prior provincialis de ordine prædicatorum." To preserve the difference between "Provençal" and "provincial," the former should surely have been "Provincialis." In p. 417, Bartholomew gives a list of the English bishoprics, with their boundaries; among them "Exoniensis conterminatur Bathoniensi, Walliæ." We will not profess to correct the text; but surely Walliæ should be something else, as what is meant is clearly Wells, not Walls. Wells, not Wales.

We will end with a story of a very singular visitor to Hereford

Cathedral:—

Tempore sub eodem quoddam inauditum et quodammodo impossibile in ecclesia cathedrali canomicorum Herfordensi contigebat. Ubi quidam dæmon, in habitu fratris canomici in choro, in choro post matutinas decantatas in quodam stallo sedebat, accessit ad eum quidam canomicus quærens ob quamnam causam ibi sedebat, credens ipsum concanomicum suum fore et fratrem; qui obmutescebat nec vocem emisit. Idem vero canomicus ultra quam dici potuit perterritus, credens ipsum esse spiritum malignum, sperans in Domino, ipsum conjuravit in nomine Jesu Christi et Sancti Thomæ de Cantilupo, ne ab eodem loco accederet, sed ibidem remaneret; mox verba ex virtute remansit. Ac demum auxilio petito, ibidem accessit et ipsum invenit. Tandem eum Teutonice vapulaverunt, et demum in vinculis posuerunt. Qui taliter vinctus et ligatus, ibidem jacet coram feretro Sancti Thomæ prænominati.

"Vapulaverunt eum" is strange Latin to begin with. But why "Yapulaverunt eum" is strange Latin to begin with. But why "Teutonice?" Is there any peculiarly German way of whipping dæmons? One might rather have expected the whole chapter to have pelted the intruder with inkstands, as the great German Reformer did afterwards.

WHICH IS WHICH?*

WHICH IS WHICH:

WHICH IS WHICH is a very funny novel. Mr. Brough himself calls it "a picture story," but we think we may venture to give it the higher title. The other day a prosecutor, in one of the police-courts, said he did not like to call himself a gentleman, but he supposed he might, for he lived on his means. This was dealing with the idea in the abstract, and reducing a popular notion to its simplest terms. It would be impossible to hit off a definition which would more completely satisfy the popular conception of what a gentleman is than one explaining him to be a person who has nothing to do. Now the word "novel" represents an idea of at least equal complexity. It cannot be defined so as to include every variety, but perhaps, on the principle adopted in the case just referred to, it may be popularly described as a something in from one to three volumes which begins with mystery and ends with marriage. If so, Which is Which is a novel of a very high power indeed. The reader is introduced to the mystery at the very commencement, and his nose is kept steadily to it all through up to the last chapter but one, where he finds a solution that, for ingenious intricacy, is as good as a game of cat's-cradle, after which the book winds up with a brace of marriages and a generous outpouring of wealth, honours, and happiness. Then there is a liberal allowance of the ordinary accessories, such as love-making, revenge, comic business, burglary, murder, and of high and low life, with a special villain for each department. It must not be supposed, however, from this that the novel is at all a commonplace one. Mr. Brough, it is true, travels the same high road as his brother novelists, but it is not with them in the omnibus. He rides his own animal, and delights in exhibiting a perfectly unconventional style of equestrianism. If Crabbe the poet was with any degree of truth said to be Pope in worsted stockings, Mr. Brough may, with at least equal aptitude, be described as G. P. R. James in motley. He has a good deal of

particles always have a special irritating effect, analogous to that of scarlet upon the turkey-cock mind? Miles Cassidy, who stands in loco parentis to the pair, comes to Oxford to fulfil a "promise sworn to the blessed Virgin," the substance of which is, that the boys are to have the advantages of a sound classical education. A couple of facetious undergraduates, meeting him just outside the town, further his design by giving him a letter to the Dean, whom they represent as the master of a kind of charity-school. The delivery of the letter by Miles in person produces a scene. We have wrath, and an offer of ten pounds for the identification of the culprits on the part of the Dean—indignation and heroic refusal of the bribe on the part of Miles Cassidy—and final triumph of unlettered virtue over a mind with notions of right and wrong confused by Greek particles. A conversation and heroic refusal of the bribe on the part of Miles Cassidy—and final triumph of unlettered virtue over a mind with notions of right and wrong confused by Greek particles. A conversation ensues, from which we gather that one of the boys, Frank by name, is marked with a cross, and the other, Ned, marked with a diamond, and that Miles Cassidy is tortured by an anxiety to discover which of the two bears the stronger likeness to himself. The reader is requested to make a note of these points for future reference. The upshot of the matter is, that Miles Cassidy is taken up by the Dean, settles in Oxford, becomes a carpenter and boatbuilder, and, to use Mr. Brough's happy expression, "cadges along the by-ways, hedgerows, and gutters of society, to bring home scraps of enlightenment and refinement to his young." Although so much alike externally, the youths turn out to differ widely in character. Frank, with the cross, has gentlemanly tastes, and a turn for poetry, and takes a good degree at St. Ogive's; while Ned, with the diamond, is decidedly vulgar, likes beer and skittles, and sets his face against being sent to college. At this stage of the story it becomes clearly necessary to see about providing a pair of heroines. Mr. Brough therefore imports from Ireland "one of the fairest of God's creatures," "the beautiful, large-browed, bright-souled, goldenhaired, brown-eyed Biddy Cassidy," a young person whose mental qualifications may be inferred from the following specimen of her conversation:—

Biddy went on with her work, blissfully unconscious of supervision, humming softly an Irish tune as she plied her homely pencil.

The world went round with Pyebush!
Biddy's rest-stick suddenly twisted round, and her hand fell forward, blotting the letter "M," which she had skilfully completed, into a huge

black dab.

"Bad 'cess to you!" exclaimed Biddy, anathematising the treacherous support; and then, recovering her philosophy with her equilibrium, she added, as she prepared to remedy the evil, " Hαθήματα μαθήματα!"

"After άριστεύειν καὶ ὑπείροχον ἔμμεναι ἄλλων," said Mr. Steadman,

Alsy aptorests και υπειροχου εμμεναι αλλών, "said Mr. Steadman, adroitly capping the proverb.

Biddy got up as quick as lightning, and responded with, "Nύν δὲ μ' ἐων ὁλιγος τε καὶ οὐτιδανος καὶ ἀειδης."

"Greek!" exclaimed the Honourable Cymon Pyebush to himself. "By

A portrait in the severest pre-Raffaelite manner illustrates this scene, and indicates the leading peculiarity in Miss Cassidy's character—viz., a habit of cutting off her nose to vex her face, which manifests itself in her treatment of Ned, to whom she is omitted the martyred feature. The other is a heroine of more ordinary workmanship. She is heiress to eight thousand a year, daughter to the late Sir Charles Evershed, granddaughter to Lady Harriet Brayle, and engaged to Frank, who, as is usual in Lady Harriet Brayle, and engaged to Frank, who, as is usual in such cases, is taken on as a lover, and no questions asked. The mine thus sunk is sprung when Ned, in a state of intoxication, meets Frank in company with Miss Evershed, and recognises him as a brother, while he himself is recognised by the lady as the carpenter who had been working in the house. 'Tis a trying moment. She "looks in Frank Cassidy's eyes like a cold, cruel statue. Had he but known what that rigid demeanour cost her to maintain!" and that, in fact, as the American poet expresses it.—

All ways to once her feelins flew Like sparks in burnt-up paper!

All ways to once her feehas flew Like sparks in burnt-up paper!

At the same time, to increase the complication, Ned is arrested on the charge of having robbed Miles Cassidy and murdered his lodger. Before the magistrate, Miles appears as a witness, and makes a statement which has nothing whatever to do with the case, but a great deal to do with the story, and for that reason is permitted by the public-spirited justice of the peace. Miles, by his own description, was one of the "boys as was out in the throubles of Ninety-eight." Returning home after the defeat of the French in the west of Ireland, he found his cabin in ruins, his wife dead, and two newly-born babes alive. Twins, the magistrate is unromantic enough to suggest. But Miles upsets that theory. One of the children is all he can claim, though "which is which," he has never been able to make out. There was a second corpse on the bed, "a beautiful strange young lady's." Here Lady Harriet Brayle faints, the above description answering in every particular for her daughter-in-law, the wife of Sir Lucius Brayle, deceased. This, of course, is the right moment for the production of the real murderer, with the necessary documents, stolen by him from the murdered man, filched by him from Sir Paul Evershed, the genteel villain of the story, and abstracted by him from the body of the French surgeon to whom Lady Brayle had entrusted them. These are two letters, the first stating that Sir Lucius is killed, and that the writer, Lady Brayle, is going to take refuge with her half-sister, who has married a

labouri of the that the the far Moore' pence i Of cou she sta to rem At an seeing Frank dispos compa ful he promo tion b the br being in an old m about turnec Enter baron baron "delis

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Which is Which? or, Miles Cassidy's Contract. A Picture Story By Robert B. Brough. London: Kent and Co. 186c.

labouring man in the town of Killala, in Mayo. The substance of the second is that the writer has just had a little boy: that the half-sister (otherwise Mrs. Cassidy) has, with admirable self-control and sympathy, so arranged matters as to have a little boy at the same time—a feat worthy of the famous Mrs. Gill, who might have been "backed again Moore's almanack to name the very day and hour for nine-pence farden;" and finally, that the writer's little boy has been marked with a cross, and the other little boy with a diamond. Of course, the poor lady meant exactly the opposite of what she stated about the marks, but we must make every allowance for one in her situation. How was she under the circumstances to remember what Mr. Brough said in the beginning of Vol. I.P. At any rate, the reader has no right to make any objection, seeing that the parties present, who are much more deeply interested in the affair than he is likely to be, make none. It is decided, therefore, nem. con., that the gentlemanlike, poetical Frank, the cross on his arm notwithstanding, is a carpenter, and the son of a carpenter; and that the "coarse and riotously-disposed plebeian," Ned, is a baronet, Lady Harriet Brayle his grandmother, Miss Evershed his first cousin, and the rest of the company his near relations. Ned, being thus established rightful heir to the Brayle estates in the place of Miss Evershed, promotes a union between that young lady and Frank by dividing the property with the latter. He also proposes to Biddy, who objects to be a baronet's wife until she has qualified for the situation by refusing an earl—which done, she becomes Lady Brayle, "a leader of the fashion, and a popular novelist, but still speaking the brogue of her infance, Mr. Brough arranges his characters in an elegant group. Miles Cassidy appears as a noble-looking old man in his shirt-sleeves, with an old frieze coat loosely tied about his shoulders, smoking a short black pipe, with his face turned to the setting sun. With him is Sir Edward Brayle, who, vulg

"delishs marridge injyment."

From the sketch we have given it will be perceived that this is not a work devoted to the delineation of character. Still less can it be called a picture of life or manners. At first, indeed, from the way in which the story opens, and the run there has been of late on University novels, we fancied Mr. Brough was about to treat Oxford from the comic point of view, and give us a facetious sketch of college society. But except when he makes Biddy Cassidy act as coach to a backward undergraduate (whom she pulls through triumphantly), he does not do much that can be strictly called painting University life. The true description of the book is a Romance with a purpose; and the purpose, as we understand it, is to show that, as far as effects go, there is no such thing as gentle blood—that it is altogether a matter of chance whether a man turns out a gentleman or a boor, and that in ordinary cases the gentleman and the boor are what they are simply by the force of circumstances. Probably the origin of the work is this:—Mr. Brough was irritated at hearing the opposite theory advanced. He was not at the moment prepared with arguments or examples to refute it. "Therefore," said he, "it's all nonsense, and I'll go home and write a story to prove it. I'll give you two boys—one a clodhopper by birth, and the other coming of a gentle stock, let them both have the same chances, and then we'll see which of them will grow up the gentleman." It is a terrible and a crushing power of argument, that which these story-tellers possess. All this, of course, is very characteristic of the school to which Mr. Brough belongs. Equally characteristic are the sketches of literary life thrown in from time to time. If people were foolish enough to take their notions on the subject from Mr. Brough, they would be apt to carry away the impression that Macaulay's History of England was written on the back of protested bills, and that In Memoriam was composed over ginand-water at the Magpie and Stump. It is put forth as

FRENCH LITERATURE.

If to be obscure is to be learned, and if to be incomprehensible is to be wise, the palm of learning and of wisdom must be awarded without hesitation to M. Ferrari. His history of Italian Revolutions, which was noticed some time ago in this Journal, afforded, indeed, fair grounds for hoping that he might one day attain to this distinction, but in the work* now before us he has

* Histoire de la Raison d'Etat. Par J. Ferrari. Paris: Michel Lévy. London: Williams and Norgate. 1860.

distanced all competitors in a manner which his warmest friends and admirers could never have anticipated. His object seems to be to compose a kind of algebra of history; but it does not appear to have occurred to him that to put the history of the whole world into formulas is a task about as simple and as hopeful as that of cramming the dome of St. Paul's into a whole world into formulas is a task about as simple and as hopeful as that of cramming the dome of St. Paul's into a carpet-bag. It is very easy to take a pen and write down the statement that every period of thirty years is followed by a revolution, and that every period of five hundred years turns the world topsy-turvy; but it would be no less easy, and quite as true, to assert that every elergyman who uses an alpaca umbrella dies a bishop. The fact is that M. Ferrari is suffering from a chronic determination of Vico to the head. As a translator of the immortal author of the Scienza Nuova, he has become so imbued with the notion that all the facts of history may, by some mysterious process, be sublimated into general laws, that he has forgotten that to carry out Vico's method with even that partial success which its founder was able to achieve, it is essential to be endowed with Vico's genius—a fate which only falls to the lot of one or two men in a century. The whole process out of which this book has grown may be described as that of "boning" history. There is no doubt that, if you have to carve a turkey; your labours are greatly facilitated if all the bones are taken out beforehand; but the parallel can scarcely be said to hold with history, the uses of which, in the absence or ignoring of all facts, can minister to little but the inditing of phrases more conspicuous for sound than for sense. Any one, for example, who addresses himself to the history of Christianity and recent exceedible of but the parallel can scarcely be said to hold with history, the uses of which, in the absence or ignoring of all facts, can minister to little but the inditing of phrases more conspicuous for sound than for sense. Any one, for example, who addresses himself to the history of Christianity, and more especially of its Founder, must be easily pleased if he can acquiesce in the following version of the "Gospels made easy." "Suivant nous, Jésus-Christ n'est pas né à Bethléem, ni sous le règne de Tibère ; il n'a pas vécu trente-trois ans, et, si le soleil s'est attristé de sa mort, son obscureissement n'a pas été aperçu à trente lieues de distance. Nous considérons la rédemption comme l'action longue, lente, sourde, qui réhabilite l'homme, abstraction faite du citoyen, en rendant enfin vulgaire la philosophie, auparavant solitaire chez les sages, ou voilée chez les conquérants." This is evolving history out of the depths of your own consciousness with a vengeance. We recommend M. Ferrari henceforth to abandon history for fiction, or at any rate to confine himself to the history of the future, where he may roam undisturbed by any of those troublesome facts which mar the symmetry of his so-called Rationale of States. The general drift of this book we prefer stating in the author's own words:—
"Dans la première partie je montre comment les peuples naissent deux à deux, voués à une guerre éternelle; comment leurs traditions constamment doubles se retrempent l'une l'autre en s'interrompant tour à tour par des formes incendiaires et néfastes. Après avoir exposé le travail de la nature et la gravitation générale des États avec ses déviations périodiques, il m'a été permis de suivre dans le seconde partie, la raison des Etats telle que l'ont conçue les écrivains qui se sont succédé en se combatant, soumis eux-mêmes à l'ordre, à la symétrie, et aux contrastes de la guerre universelle. Les grandes lignes étant ainsi tracées, chaque individu a pris aisément sa place, les abréviations sont devenues faciles [we have seen how the a history, and that men are qualified to be its expositors just in proportion as they are ignorant of its facts, and think scorn of all received theories as to its investigations. Of the dangers and absurdities with which such a notion is fraught M. Ferrari furnishes an instructive illustration.

We now turn to a work* from which lessons equally useful may be gathered, as to the true method on which history should be studied. Its author is M. Jules de Lasteyrie (whom we must not confound with Ferdinand de Lasteyrie, the famous archæologist), and its subject is the History of Political Liberty in France. It will be seen that both the brothers are thus engaged in archæological pursuits. It is in every sense a most remarkable book—full of deep research and original thought, the results of which are laid before us in a manly style, warmed and coloured with a passionate love of liberty. The acuteness with which historical evidence is sifted can only be equalled by the sobriety with which the writer's own conclusions are put forward, and the candour with which the conflicting views of previous historiars are confronted with his own. The volume before us comprises the first part of the entire work, and is occupied with the Barbarian period. It is divided into four chapters. In the first, which is entitled "Ve Siècle," M. J. de Lasteyrie gives us a picture of the condition of the Gallo-Roman inhabitants of Gaul, and of the barbarian tribes at the time of the conquest by the Franks. The results of that conquest on the laws and liberties of the Gallo-Roman population are proved to have been as unduly depreciated by writers of the school of Dubos as they have been unfairly exaggerated by the disciples of Boulainvilliers and Montesquieu. To show that the sacred embers of liberty were not stamped out by the conquest of Gaul is a task of which

^{*} Histoire de la Liberté Politique en France. Par Jules de Lasteyric. Première Partie. Paris: Michel Lévy. London: Williams and Norgate. 1850.

the writer hails the accomplishment with legitimate pride. We cannot resist the pleasure of quoting the eloquent words which close this chapter:—"Ces hommes méprisaient deux eloses méprisables: la lâcheté derant l'ennemi, la bassesse devant les puissants. Ils nous ont légué le sentiment du droit individuel et celui de la dignité personnelle. La foi politique se raffermit et devient une émotion religieuse lorsqu'on voit des lueurs de liberté apparaître au foyer du Gallo-Romain courbé sous les humiliations de la conquête. Mieux que les ceuvres de la force et du génie, la simple manifestation de la pensée et du sentiment chez l'homme agonisant dit que l'âme est immortelle; cette liberté du Gallo-Romain, pâle, meurtrie, cette humble vie dit, elle aussi, que l'âme des sociétés est immortelle." The results sketched out in the first chapter are filled up and proved in detail in the two following, of which the former investigates the liberties of the Gallo-Roman inhabitants, making sad havoc of Thierry's theory of races, while the latter treats of the liberties of the Franks. The strictures passed, not without plausible grounds, on Mr. Hallam's views as to the decline of the liberties of the Franks, would probably have undergone some modification if our author had been acquainted with the Supplemental Notes to the View of the State of Europe during the Middle Ages, in which our lamented historian retracted in great measure what he had previously written on this subject. The concluding chapter is entitled "Nature du Pouvoir Barbare," and examines the nature and origin of royalty under the Franks, and the different phases through which it passed. Copious pièces justificatives enhance the interest of one of the most valuable contributions to the historical literature of France which we have met with for some time past. We trust that the sequel may soon be given to the world.

We confess that M. Charles Nisard does not greatly preposees us in favour of his recent work* by the title which he has given it, and which savours

were the representatives, there can be no doubt that M. Nisard has done good service, for under no less agreeable auspices would modern readers consent to make their way through the musty volumes in which their disputations are recorded. M. Nisard seems excessively proud of having had those same volumes in his own hands—a privilege which he maintains has fallen to the lot of few, not even to the author of the Quarrels of Authors, who, we learn with some surprise, was "Mr. Irailh." But to all this boasting the obvious reply is, that as the days of man are but a span long, he has, or ought to have, something better to do than to rummage out books which nobody knows on subjects about which nobody cares. It is possible, however, that the very amusing pages which M. Nisard has put together in these two volumes may excite an interest in these feuds of scholars which has not hitherto been felt. At any rate the extracts given by the author will spare the reader the trouble of searching out the musty volumes aforesaid. The following is, on the whole, a very moderate specimen of the style in which these gladiators lunged at each other. Pozzio writes to Filelfo as follows:—"O hirce foculente; O fætide corniger, O infelix portentum! Tu, tu, inquam, maledicus, tu oblocutor, tu deceptor fallax, corruptor subdolus, seditione plenus et fraude: tu semper fabricandis mendaciis, tu serendis odiis et discordiis intentus. Di te malis omnibus et exemplis perdant, bonorum virorum nequissimum parricidam, qui maledicis labiis, nequissimis faucibus, mendosa lingua, inquinato ore, stylo impuro viros probos ac doctos conaris evertere." We recommend this extract for the next edition of the Polite Letter-Writer.

The new edition of the Biographie Universelle (first commenced by Michaud, whose name it bears, in 1810, and not to be confounded with Didot's Biographie Générale) has reached the twenty-fifth volumer without having as yet received any notice atour hands. We cannot now attempt to repair the omission, but we may state that it was no

* Les Gladiateurs de la République des Lettres. Par Charles Nisard.
2 vols. Paris: Michel Lévy. London: Jeffs.
† Biographie Universelle (Michaud). Tome xxv. Paris: Madame Desplaces. London: Williams and Norgate.

forget to judge. The work will be completed in forty volumes, each containing the matter of three ordinary octavo volumes. It will thus comprise not only all the names included in the fifty-two volumes of the first edition and in the thirty volumes of the supplement, but also the names of those who have died in the interval between those publications and the printing of each successive volume; for, unlike the Biographie Générale, this collection does not take in the names of living worthies. The volume last out brings down the work to the letters MAC. The article on Lord Macaulay is by M. A. Maury, who informs us that the historian took his B.A. degree in 1822, which is correct enough; but unfortunately he thinks it necessary to append a curious tissue of blunders to the effect that Macaulay passed his B.A. examination so brilliantly that, although he did not go for mathematics, he was elected a Fellow of his College. There is probably no work of this nature which has achieved a reputation at once so wide and so solid as the one before us. The pains bestowed upon this new edition warrant the expectation that this reputation will be as enduring as it is extensive. Any one who wishes to make himself master of the physical

Any one who wishes to make himself master of the physical and political geography of Paraguay,* its fauna and flora, its history, and the history of the Jesuit missions in those parts, would do well, so far as we can judge, to procure a work embracing all these topics, of which the first volume has just been published. The author is M. A. Demersay, who now gives us the result of a scientific mission on which he was sent by M. Villemain as far back as the year 1844. It cannot be said that he has rushed into print without reflection. It would appear that the chapters on the natural history of Paraguay have a peculiar value, from the author having had access to the famous Bonpland's journals and notes.

To come to somewhat lighter matter, we wish to call attention

Bonpland's journals and notes.

To come to somewhat lighter matter, we wish to call attention to two annuals with which M. Hachette has followed up the Année Scientifique and the Année Littéraire already noticed in this journal. They are the Année Agricole, and the Année Musicale. The formert is drawn up so exclusively for the use of the agricultural classes in France, that it will scarcely interest any one in this country, though the insight it gives into the practices of French farming, and the agricultural statistics of France, may be valuable to those farmers who know French well enough to understand it. The Année Musicale ‡ addresses itself to a wider class. The writer, M. Scudo, is the well-known musical critic of the Revue des Deux Mondes. His criticism on the grand opera at Paris is summed up as follows:—"Du reste, aucune discipline dans ces masses chorales avec lesquelles on pourrait produire de si beaux effets; un orchestre mou qui se néglige parce qu'il n'est ni suffisamment payé, ni suffisamment surveillé; un repertoire qui roule sur cinq ou six opéras qui reviennent incessamment toujours de plus mal en plus mal exécutés; une administration faible sans initiative, sans amour de l'art et sans autorité d'ailleurs, pour opérer les réformes desirables." M. Scudo winds up this cheerful pieture by the comforting remark, "Rien n'annonce que cet état de choses soit près de finir." At the end of the volume the reader will find an account of the diapason reform which has recently been effected in France.

M. Emile Deschanel has published a book full of amusing producte fine on account of the diapason reform which has recently been effected in France.

which has recently been effected in France.

M. Emile Deschanel has published a book full of amusing aneedotes, &c., on actors, § both as portrayed in works of fiction—like the Roman Comique, or Withelm Meister—and also as found in the biographies of the stage. Under a light and unpretending style the author conveys the fruit of a great deal of reading and research. The notes respecting Talma are particularly interesting. Extracts are given from his manuscripts, and we have also an account of his last moments from the pen of his naphew. The chapter on Molière is the proprest in the lot. his nephew. The chapter on Molière is the poorest in the lot.

A book of somewhat the same class is M. Jules Janin's Variétés Littéraires ||—a kind of olla podrida on the history of newspapers and their writers; to which are added chapters on Benvenuto Cellini, Louis XV., Diderot, Lord Byron, and Lady Blessington. It would be hopeless, however, to think of mentioning everything on which this writer touches, and still more hopeless to name any subject which he leaves untouched. Such books and such authors are not, of course, worthy of any serious attention, but as a means of passing an idle half-hour they have

Equally amusing, but far more original and instructive, is the volume of Contes Industriets, \(\begin{align*} \) in which M. Jourdan has ingeniously contrived to embody a considerable amount of information on various kinds of manufactures. Gowns, bonnets, coats, satin slippers, pearls, perfumes, mirrors, wine-glasses, soap, coffee-cups, a loaf of sugar, chocolate, cinnamon, and an old newspaper, are each of them in turn introduced as narrating their ancestry and birth, their fate and fortunes, with an amount of humour which we do not often meet with in a French book.

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^{*} Histoire Physique, Economique, et Politique du Paraguay et des Etablissements des Jésuites. Tome i. Paris and London: Hachette.

[†] L'Année Agricole. Par G. Heuzé. Première Année. Paris and London: Hachette.

[‡] L'Année Musicale. Par P. Scudo. Première Année. Paris and London: Hachette. § Emile Deschanel: La Vie des Comédiens. Paris and London: Hachette.

^{||} Jules Janin: Variétés Littéraires. Paris and London: Hachette. || Contes Industriels. Par Louis Jourdan. London: Jeffs.

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MADAME ARABELLA GODDARD and M. LEOPOLD DE MEYER, Herr MOLIQUE, Herr BECKER, and Signor FEEZE are all engaged to perform the Market Market Becker, and Signor FEEZE are all engaged to perform the Market Market Becker, and MONALATIVE Market Becker, and MONALATIVE Market Becker, and Monalative Are Maria, Beckhoven's Pastoral Symphony, Meyerbeer's Grand Schiller March, the Third Act of Rossini's Otello, and La Prova d'un Opera Seris, will be performed by the emisent Artistes of that Great Establishment. Early application for the remaining Boxes, Fit Tickets, and Auphitheur Steak, and Municipality of Mr. Benedict, 2, Manchester-square, W.

MUSICAL UNION.—HERR STRAUS. VIOLINIST, bit debut at the EXTRA MATINEE, TUESDAY, June 5th, and with PIATTI and LUEBCK will play a new Trio, by Ladic quinted in b, by Mosarst, Violin Solo, Vieux-temps; Solos, Pianoforte, Lubeck; New Fart Songa, sung by the Orpheus Giec Union, &c. Tickets, Half-a-Guinea each for Strangers, to be had at the usual places. Members can introduce Visitors, at the Hall, Five Shillings each. Doors open at Half-past Two.

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A RUNDEL SOCIETY.—All lovers of Early Italian Art are invited to inspect the reduced water-colour Copies from Frences by Masaccia, B. GOZZOLI, PINTUBICCHIO, PRANCIA, FLITEPING STREET SOCIETY SCORMS. Prospectuses of a plan for the separate production of cocal subject may be obtained on application, personally or by letter, to Mr. F. Maynab, Assistant Secretary.

34, Old Bond-street, W. JOHN NORTON, Honorary Secretary.

SOUTH KENSINGTON MUSEUM. — Until further notice this Museum will be OPEN to the Public on MONDAYS, TUESDAYS, and WEDNESDAYS, from Ten A.M., till Ten F.M.; on THURSDAYS, FEIDAYS, and SATURDAYS, from Ten A.M., to Six P.M. Admission according to the usual rules.

By Order of the Committee of Council on Education.

TUITION.—A CLERGYMAN, B.A. of CAMBRIDGE, would be glad to READ with a PUPIL for an HOUR or TWO DAILY. Address Rev. H. C., Post Office, 66, Oxford-street.

THE REV. PHILIP SMITH, B.A., Head Master of Mill School, on retiring from that office at Midsummer, intends to RECEIVE Hill School, on retiring from that office at Midsumme PUPILS. Further particulars on application.

Mill Hill, Hendon, Middlesex, N.W.

AN UNDERGRADUATE, Exhibitioner of his College, is Mowdeau, of a UTTORSHIP during the Long Vacation.—Address T. W. C., Mr. A. R. MOWBERY, COM MARKET-Street, OXFORT.

A GRADUATE of CAMBRIDGE, aged Twenty-nine, who is desirous of engaging himself as TRAYELLING COMPANION to any Gentleman who may intend making a tour in the East. Unexceptionable references are offered.—Address E. C., Post Office, Hull.

HOLIDAY TRIP.—A TUTOR will leave early in JULY, for a short stay on the CONTINENT, and can take with him a FEW PUPILS wishful to read up German or French.—For terms, &c., address E. S., 32, Norfolk-road, Brighton.

AS INTERPRETER and COMPANION on a FOREIGN TOUR. A GENTLEMAN of middle-age, English by birth and bringing-up, who, by living among several nations, knows their manners and their tongues, desires to engage himself forthwith.—Address, under cover, to H. N. Chellin, Esq., 1, Dorset-place, London, N.W.

CRAMMAR SCHOOL, READING, BERKS.—There are valuable SCHOLARSHIPS (of £160 per Annum each) attached to this School; also LOCAL SCHOLARSHIPS. Both these are open to the whole School. The Head Master wishes to increase the number of his Boarders to insure an active competition. The School has won Four open Scholarships at Oxford during the last five years, also several First and Second Classes. Pupils are also doing well in almost every walk in life. For particulars apply to the Rev. R. Applexon, School-house, Forbury, Reading.

THE LATE REV. W. COOK, OF UNIVERSITY COLLEGE SCHOOL THE LATE REV. W. COOK, OF OWNERS IN COLLEGE, LONDON (GOWER-STREET), AMA., will be held at UNIVERSITY COLLEGE, LONDON (GOWER-STREET), THURSDRY, the 7th June, at Seven P.M., to consider the best means of establishing a lastina MEMORIAL of his services as head Mathematical Master in the above School, Mr. Yoot, Ma., has kindly consented to preside.

UNIVERSITY OF LONDON.

NOTICE IS HERBY GIVEN, that the FIRST EXAMINATION for the Dogree of BACHELOR OF ARTS, and the FIRST EXAMINATION for the Dogree of BACHELOR OF SCIENCE, for the present year, will commence on MONDAY, the 16th of July from each Candidate must be transmitted to the Registrar fourteen days before the commencement of the Examination.

riington House, May 29th, 1800.

By Order of the Senate, WM. B. CARPENTER, M.D., Registrar.

UNIVERSITY OF LONDON.

NOTICE IS HEREBY GIVEN, that the next Half-yearly Examination for MATRICULATION in this University will commence on MONDAY, the 3nd of JULY. In addition to the Metropolitan Examination, Provincial PASS Examinations will be held at Stony hurst College, Owner's College, Standenster; Queen's College, Liverpool; and Groavenor College, Bath.

Every Candidate is required to transmit his Certificate of Age to the Registrar (Burlington House, London, W.) at least fourteen days before the commencement of the Examination.

WILLIAM B. CARPENTER, M.D., Registrar,

CUDDESDON THEOLOGICAL COLLEGE.

Visitor—The LORD BISHOP OF OXFORD.

Principal—The Rev. H. H. SWINNY, M.A., late Fellow of Magdalene College, Cambridge.

Vice-Principal—The Rev. W. I. DAYEY, M.A., Lincoln College, Oxford.

Chaplain and Assistant-Lecturer—The Rev. EDWARD KING, M.A., Oriel College, Oxford.

Chaplain and Assistant-Lecturer—The Rev. EDWARD KING, M.A., Oriel College, Oxford.
The College is under the immediate direction of the Load BISHOP of NAFORD. It is
intended as a place of residence for religious preparation and theological study, between
graduating at the University and being admitted to Holy Orders.
The College is open to all who have passed the final examination at Oxford, Cambridge,
Durham; Thrity College, Dublin; and King's College, London.
Students are not in any way piedged to take Cures within the Diocesse of Oxford, OpporInnities constantly occur of finding desirable Curacics as titles in many of the English

The next Term commences July 28th. There is an Exhibition now vacant of £50 per annum.

The Rev. J. Cleathing's Exhibition for the Son of a Clergyman is tenable at this College.

co.

further particulars may be accertained by reference to

The Rev. The PRINCIPAL,

Cuddeedon College, Wheatier, near Orfe

MILL HILL SCHOOL.— The Rev. WM. FLAVEL HURNDALL, M.A., Ph.D. (laste of Worcester), has been appointed Head Master and Chaplain of the Mill Hill School, and will MEET the PUFILS to commence the work of the Session on WeDN ESDAY, AGGUST 1st, 1806.—Purther information may be obtained from the Rev. THOMAS REES, Hesident Scoretary, Mill Hill, near Hendon, Middlesex.

WESTMINSTER SCHOOL.—All persons interested in this Ancient Foundation, and who feel averse to the present Movement for its REMOVAL to a FRESH SITE, with the consequent breaking up of all its old memories, and probable deterioration of the School, are requested to make their opinions known, by letter to Conservator, at LOCKWOOD'S, 5, New Bund-street, LONGON, W.

TO LITERARY GENTLEMEN, MEMBERS OF THE BAR, CLEBGYMEN, and others, a verbatim SHORTHAND WRITER offers bis services as AMANUENSIS, either permanently or occasionally. Sermons or Lectures

Address A. W., Mr. Elliott's, Stationer, 59, Lamb's Conduit-street, W.C.

WANTED, by the Proprietors of a first-class Provincial Con-servative Newspaper, a CONTRIBUTOR of ONE or TWO POLITICAL ARTICLES Address (stating terms) to X. T., after Off. ONWRYN, Publisher, i, Catherine-street, Strand.

ECCLESIOLOGICAL SOCIETY.— The ANNUAL MEETING will be held on MONDAY, June 11th, at Eight F. M., in the Gallery of the ARCHITECTURAL MUSEUM, 11, Conduit-street, Mr. BERESFORD Hc.P.S. President, in the Chair. Persons desirous of admission may be admitted by sending in their Cards to the President. The subject of discussion will be "The Tendencies of Fre-Raffaelitism, and its Connexion with the Gothic Movement."

THE GREAT EASTERN for NEW YORK.—The Great J. VINE HALL, Commander, from Southambert, the steam-ship, GREAT EASTERN, the 9th of June. Three Hundred first-class passengers only will be taken, at an uniform fare of £25 each, including steward's fee, but without wines or liqueurs, which can be obtained on board. Return tickets will be lessed at the rate of £45.—For passage and other information, apply to the GREAT SHIP COMPANY (Limited). It, King William-street, £6.

ORPHAN WORKING SCHOOL, HAVERSTOCK HILL, near Hampstead, for Children of both Sexes, of all Denominations, and from all parts of the Kingdom. Patron-Her Majesty the QUEEN.

Fifty Orphans are annually admitted into the School. SN are now under the care of the Charity. 490 can be accommodated when the present building is enlarged. 1915 altogether have been received; of those, 600 since its removal to Haverstock-hill in 1847.

Contributions for the extension of the Charity, and in aid of the general expenses, are respectfully and very carnestly solicited. Annual Governor's Subscription, 21 is, 116 Governor, 210 10s. and upwards. For a Subscriber, 10s. 6d. annually; for Life, 25 ss. All the Books and Accounts are open to the inspection of Governors, who, with the Subscribers, elect the Children.

HYDROPATHY.—THE BEULAH SPA HYDROPATHIC

BITABLISHMENT, Upper Norwood, replete with every comfort, within twenty
minutes' walk of the Crystal Palace, is OPEN for the reception of Patients and Visitors.

The inter can have the advantage, if desired, of a private residence. The site is unrivalled
for its healthiness. Particulars of Dr. HITTREBARDT, M.D., the Resident Physician.

HYDROPATHY. — SUDBROOK PARK. — Hydropathic sanatorium, near Richmond, Surrey. This Establishment is NOW OPEN for the reception of Patients, under the superintendence of the present Proprieto, Dr. E. W. Lane, M.A., M.D. Edin, Author of "Hydropathy; or, Hygrenic Medicine." Second Edition, John CHURCHILL, New Burlington-street.

LONDON FEVER HOSPITAL, ISLINGTON.

BETABLISHED 1892.—TWO HUNDRED BEDS.

President.—The Right Hon. LORD MONTEAGLE.

Cases of Fever of every kind, and in all stages of malignity, occurring in the Pamilles of the Poor, or among the Domestics of the Affluent, are received into the Hospital at all hours.

FUNDS are PRESSINGLY NEEDED. Money may be paid to the Treasurer, Messrs. HOARE and Co., Fleet-street; or to the Secretary, at the Hospital.

THE TURKISH BATH, PALACE STREET, PIMLICO, near Buckingham Gate, is OPEN to the Public DAILY (Sunday excepted), from Seven, till Nine P.M.

BUGLES for VOLUNTEER CORPS, Government Pattern, corresponding to those used in the Line, very best make, price, in copper, 42n, or strongly electro-plated, 63s.; green cord and tassels, 3s., 6d., silk ditto, 5r.; enamelled leather case, with straps and buckle, 19s. Sent carriage free on receipt of a remittance. Boosex and Sons, Military Musical Instrument Manufacturers, Holles-street, London. Volunteer Bands furnished with Instruments and Music of every description.

THE FASHIONABLE SHAWL OF PARIS.—
Cashmere and Grenadine Shawls trimmed with Real Lace Flounces, most appropriate for the Present Season, combining Style with Elegance and Utility.

Real Spanish Mantillas 69 guineas.
Imitation do. 58.64.

At A. BLACKBORNE'S Spanish Bruxelles Depôt, 35, South Audley-street, Grosvenor-square.

H. J. and D. NICOLL'S Establishments for Gentlemanly and REGENT STREET, CORNHILL, and MANCHESTER.

THE CAPE PALETOT, INVERNESS CAPE, or SLEEVED CAPE, used in Private Life, as well as for Volunteer Corps.

H. J. and D. NICOLL, 114, 116, 118, 190, REGENT STREET; 22, CORNHILL, London; and 10, ST. ANN'S SQUARE, Manchester.

CLOTHING for YOUTH.—The Nickerbocker, the Highland Dress, Ladies' Travelling Mantles, Biding Habits, and Pantalons de Dames à Cheval, with much novelty and general excellence, H. J. and B. NICOLL have, for the remainder of this Season, at WARWICK HOUSE, 128 and 144, Regent-street. In the Autumn this branch will be removed to the rear of the old Satabilament.

NEUTRAL COLOURED COMPLETE SUITS of one material, introduced last Season for Gentlemen, and subsequently improved by variety of materials, the flatening by a top link or button, which serves for a Letter-seal when engraved with Crest or Coat of Arms, is registered 6 and 7 Vict.; and the Complete Suit is occasionally under, and seldom exceeds, Three Founds in coat. H. J. and D. NICOLL, 116, 116, 118, and 120, REGENT STREET; and 23, CORNHILL, London.

H. J. and D. NICOLL are prepared, at short notice, to REGENT STREET, LONDON.

SHIRTS.—UNEQUALLED for QUALITY and accuracy of fit. Sizes or measures registered for future Orders; and FAMILY HOSIEEY in STOCKINGS, SOCKS, VESTS and DRAWERS of the best descriptions and newest styles in every material for the season.

POPE AND PLANTE, 4, WATERLOO PLACE, PALL MALL, LONDON, S.W.

WILLIAM SMEE and SONS, CABINET MANUFACTURERS, UPHOLSTERERS, and BEDDING WAEEIQUEMEN, 6, FINSUEX
PAYEMENT, LONDON, E.C., much regret the inconvenience which they fear such of
their Customers as have visited their Waercome during the two weeks must have
suffered from the dust, as well as the disarrangement of Stock, occasion by the alterations and additions to their Premises which have been in progress.

WILLIAM SMEE and SONS have pleasure in announcing that these are now completed,
and comprise the addition to their already very extensive Premises of SIX NEW WAREROOMS OF LARGE SIZE, a more commodious ENTRANCE, NEW STAIRCASES, and
many other conveniences. Their Stock (which they believe to be the largest in London, and
probably in the World) of Cabinet and Upholstery Furniture, Bedding (including the
SIXTEEN LARGE WAREROOMS, besides those devoted to Carpets, Curtain Materials,
In making these additions to their Wares.

In making these additions to their Warerooms, WILLIAM SMEE and SONS have gives greatly increased accommodation to their BEDDING and BEDECOM FURNITUES DEPARTMENT, and especially have added largely to their Stock of IEON and BEASS BEDSTEADS.

They have also just prepared, for the use of their Customers and the Public a NEW BOOK DESIGNS OF REIN AND BRASS REDSTEADS, TOGETHER WITH REDUCED LOTS OF PRICES OF BEDDING, which will be forwarded upon application.
WILLIAM SMEE and SONS strongly urgs upon intending Purchasers the advantage of a personal selection, and ask the favour of a call to inspect their Stock.

BONUS YEAR.

SIXTH DIVISION OF PROFITS, effected will participate in the Division to be made as at 15th

The Standard was established in 1825.

WILL THOS. THOMSON, Manager. H. JONES WILLIAMS, Resident Secretary.

attends at the Office, daily, at Half-past One.

82, KING WILLIAM STREET.

3, GEORGE STREET (Head Office).

60, UPPER SACKVILLE STREET. The Company's Medical Officer attend

1809

NORTH BRITISH INSURANCE COMPANY. INCORPORATED BY ROYAL CHARTER AND ACT OF PABLIAMENT.

Head Office-64, PRINCES STREET, EDINBURGH. London Office - 4, NEW BANK BUILDINGS, LOTHBURY.

CHAIRMAN OF LONDON BOARD—SIR PETER LAURIE, Alderman.
BANKER—UNION BANK OF LONDON.
SOLICITOR—ALEXANDER DOBIE, Esq., Lancaster-place.

Accumulated Fund...... £1,031,454 0 0

LIFE ASSURANCE. 1860.

POLICIES EFFECTED WITH THIS COMPANY DURING THE PRESENT YEAR WILL BE ENTITLED TO SIX YEARS' BONUS AT NEXT DIVISION OF PROFITS.

During the year 1859, 605 Policies were issued, Assuring the sum of £440,913 0 0

Policies are by arrangement declared free from all restrictions.

Ninety per cent, of the Profits are divided amongst Policy-holders Insured on the Particlistias Scale.

pating Scale.

At the last investigation, 31st December, 1838, the ascertained Profit on the business during the preceding seven years amounted to £193,000.

The attention of the Public is specially called to the DOUBLE INSURANCE SYSTEM—HALF PREMIUM SYSTEM—and ASSURANCE AND ANNUITY SYSTEM—lately adopted at this Office. For full particularly, reference is made to the Prospectus of the Company.

No extra Premium charged for Members of Volunteer Corps.

FIRE DEPARTMENT.

The Company Insure against Fire most descriptions of Property, at the lowest rates of Premium corresponding to the risk. Rents of Buildings also Insured.

Prospectuses and all necessary information may be obtained on application at No. 4, NEW BANK BULLDINGS, LOTHRUKY, or any of the Agents in the Country.

8. New Bank Buildings, Lothbury.

8. STRACHAN, Secretary.

4, New Bank Buildings, Lothbury, London, March, 1869. B. STRACHAN, Secretary.

LAW LIFE ASSURANCE SOCIETY,

NOTICE IS HEREBY GIVEN, that a SPECIAL GENERAL MEETING of the PROPRIETOES of this Society will be held at the OFFICE, Fleet-street, London, on FRIDAY, the 8th day of JUNE next, at Twelve o'clock at noop precisely, for the purpose of declaring a Division of the Surplus of the Assurance Fund of the Society in respect of the five years ending on the 3ist December last.

And Motice is breefy further given, that a Second Special General Meeting will be held And Motice is breefy after the regiven, that as Second Special General Meeting will be held confirming the resolution which shall have been agreed to at such First Meeting, in pursuance of the provisions contained in the Deed of Settlement.

And Notice is hereby further given, that any person who shall have been assured by the Society for two whole years may, on the production of his Policy and of the last receipt for the Premium thereon, be present at such Meeting. At each of the said Meetings the chair will be taken at Twelve o'clock proclessly.

By Order of the Directors,

WILLIAM SAMUEL DOWNES, Actuary,

IMPERIAL LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY,

DIRECTORS. FREDERICK PATTISON, Esq., Chairman, JAMES BRAND, Esq., Deputy Chairman.

Thomas George Barclay, Esq. James C. C. Bell, Esq. Charles Cave, Esq. George William Cottam, Esq. George Henry Cutler, Esq. George Field, Esq. George Field, Esq.

eputy Chairman.
George Hibbert, Esq.
Samuel Hibbert, Esq.
Thomas Newman Hunt, Esq.
James Gordon Murdoch, Esq.
William R. Robinson, Esq.
Martin Tucker Smith, Esq., M.P.
Newman Smith, Esq.

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and mortgages in Great Britain.

FROPITS.—Four-fifths, or 50 per cent. of the profits are assigned to policies every fifth year. The assured are entitled to participate after payment of one premium.

PUECHASE OF POLICIES.—A liberal allowance is made on the surrender of a policy, either by a cash payment or the issue of a policy free of premium.

CLAIMS.—The Company has disbursed in payment of claims and additions upwards of £1,200,000.

Proposals for insurances may be made at the chief office, as above; at the branch office, 10, Pall-mail, London; or to any of the agents throughout the kingdom. SAMUEL INGALL, Actuary.

° ,° Service allowed in Local Militia and Volunteer Rifle Corps within the United Kingdo

EQUITABLE ASSURANCE OFFICE, The Amount added to the existing Policies for the whole continuance of Life at the decenual division of profits in December last, was ONE MILLION NINE HUNDRED AND SEVENTY-SEVEN THOUSAND POUNDS, making, with FORME additions then outstanding, a total of FOUR MILLIONS and SEVENTY THOUSAND POUNDS, which amounts to Sixty-seven per cent, on the sums originally assured in all those Policies.

The BONUSES paid on claims in the ten years ending on the Sist December, 1860, exceed

THREE MILLIONS AND A HALP,

THREE MILLIONS AND A HALF,
being more than 160 per cent. on the amount of all those claims.
The CAPITAL, on the 1st November, 1859, £5,460,000 sterling.
The INCOME exceeds £250,000 per annum.
POLICIES effected in the current year (1860) will participate in the DISTRIBUTION
OF PROFITS ordered in DECRMEER LAST, 80 soon as Six Annual Premiums shall have
become due and been paid thereon; and, in the division of 1850, will be entitled to additions
in respect of EVERY PERMIUM paid upon them from the years 1851 to 1850, each inclusive.
The EQUITABLE is an entirely mutual Office, in which Two-TRIEDS OF THE CLEAR
SCHELDS is decennically divided among the TOLOF HOLDERS, and ONS-TRIED EXERTED periodical distribution.
No extre promiser is a large of the Color of the Profits for future.
No extre promiser is a large of the color of the profits for future.

periodical distribution.

No extra promium is charged for service in any Volunteer Corps within the United Kingdom, during peace or wire.

A Weekly Cours of Dissertors is Held Every Wednesday, from Eleven to One o'clock, to receive proposals for New Assurances; and "a Prospectus" of the Society may be had on application at the Office, where attendance is given daily, from Ten to Four

ABTHUR MORGAN, Actuary,

THE STANDARD LIFE ASSURANCE COMPANY. HAND INSURANCE OFFICE, SPECIAL NOTICE. Established 1696.

DIRECTORS

he Hon. William Ashley, he Hon. Sir Edward Cust, irthur Eden, Esq. ohn Letsom Elliot, Esq. ames Esdaile, Esq. ohn Gurney Hoare, Esq.

Jonn Gurney Hoare, Esq.

William Estable Winter, Esq.

RESOLVED—That persons whose lives are insured in this Office be insured without extra
Premium, against all risks to which they may be exposed whilst engaged in the Militia, or
any Yeomanry. Rifle, or other Yolunteer Corps, acting within the United Kingdom of
Great Britain and Ireland, whether in time of peace or war.

Strain and Ireland, whether in time of peace or war,
without participation in profits, or a Member's scale of Premiums with an Annual participation in the whole of the
profits, after five Annual parments.

For the last twoive years participation in profits has yielded an Annual abatement of 52
per cent. on the premiums of all Policies of five or more years' standing.

The effect of the abatement is thus shown:—

| Age when insured. | Sum | Annual Premium for | Reduced |
|-------------------|------------------|------------------------------|----------------------------|
| | insured. | first Five Years. | Annual Premium. |
| 80 40 | £ 500 1000 | £ s. d. 13 7 1 33 19 2 | £ 8. d. 6 7 0 16 2 8 |

Insurances effected before the 24th June next, will participate in profits in the year 1865.

FIRE DEPARTMENT.
Insurances effected at the usual rates.

d at the usual rate.

By order of the Board,

RICHARD RAY, Secretary.

REDUCTION OF THE WINE DUTIES.

THE OXFORD SHERRY, 30s. per dozen, bottles included.—
CADIZ WINE COMPANY, 06, St. James's-street, London. N.B.—Carriage free.

CADIZ WINE COMPANY, 66, St. James's-street, London. N.B.—Carriage free.

REDUCTION OF THE WINE DUTIES.

LIZ, PALL MALL, LONDON, S.W.

The promoters of the above Company beg to announce that they have reduced their Tariff of Prices, and now offer their patrons the full benefit of the new canctment,

ROYAL VICTORIA SHERRY 27s, per dozen.

SPLENDID OLD PORT, ten years in the wood.

SPARKLING EPERNAY CHAMPAGNE 34s.

SPARKLING EPERNAY CHAMPAGNE 34s.

STANDER FOR AND AND AND WILLIAM STANDAY SHEET STANDAY SHEET SHEET

JAMES L. DENMAN, Wine Merchant, and Introducer of the South African Wines, 63, FENCHURCH STREET, LONDON, E.C.
The recent reduction of the Customs tariff enables me to offer various European Wines and Spirits hitherto excluded by the operation of high duties at the following scale of prices:—

| | of these Wines renders com | | | |
|--|---|-----------|----------|--------|
| PORTS, SHERRIES, &c. &c | ***************** | 208. | 24s. per | dozen. |
| | FRENCH. | | | |
| PORTS | *************************************** | 208. | 248. | ** |
| CLARET, VIN ORDINAIRE | ************************************** | 208. | 248. | 99 |
| Do. (various growths) CHAMPAGNE (Sparkling) | ***************** | 288, 308, | 428. | 99 |
| CHAMPAGNE (Sparking) | | 308. | 928, | 99 |
| | SPANISH. | | | |
| ARRAGONESE PORTS | ********************************* | 208. | 248. | 91 |
| CATALONIAN SHERRIES | *************************************** | 208. | 248. | |

A LLSOPP'S PALE ALE.—FINDLATER, MACKIE, TODD, and CO., beg to announce that they are now prepared to supply ALLSOPP'S PALE ALE, of the finiest quality, in Bottles and Caske of 16 finited floors and awards. Stores, under London Bridge Railway-station; Entrance, 218, Tooley-street, S.E.

A LLSOPP'S PALE ALE IN BOTTLE, recommended by Baron LIEBIG and all the Faculty, may now be had in the finest condition of Measrs. HARRINGTON PARKER, and CO., who have REDUCED the PRICE of this highly esteemed beverage to

eemed beverage to
43. 6d. per dozen Imperial Pints.
23. 9d. ,, Imperial Half-pints.
Address Habeington Parker, and Co., 5j. Pall Mall, London, S.W.

TEA.—1000 Boxes very strong and choice Black Tea just been selected with the greatest are, specially for the Importer, STEACHAN and CO. 26, Cornhill, E.C., which they offer to their Customers at the Merchant's price, 3s. 11d. per lb. One-Quarter Pound Sample may be had.

THE EAST INDIA TEA COMPANY (LIMITED), the only Company who import their own Teas and supply the Public direct—a CEAE SAVING of FIFTEEN PEE CENT. The celebrated 6b, bag of Tea, from 2s. 4d, per lb.; of Cofice in the berry, from 10d.; fine Lapsang Souchong, in pounds, 3s. 8d. warehouse, o, Great St. Helen's-churchyard, Bishopsgate-street.

THE BEST and CHEAPEST TEAS in ENGLAND are to be obtained of PHILLIPS and CO., Tea Merchants, 8, King William-street, City, London. Good strong useful Congou Tea, 9, 6d., 28, 5d., 25, 10d., 5s., and 38, 4d. Rich Souchoug Teas, 8s. 8d., 3s. 10d., and 4s. Tea and Coffee, to the value of 40s., sent carriage free to any railway station or market town in England. A Price Current free by post on application.

PROWN AND POLSON'S PATENT CORN FLOUR, preferred to the best Arrowroot. Delicious in Puddings, Custards, Blancmange, Cake, &c., and especially sailed to the delisacy of Children and Invalids. The Lancet states—"This is superior to anything of the kind known." Taisley and London.

SAUCES.—CONNOISSEURS HAVE PRONOUNCED

LEA and PERRINS' "WORCESTERSHIRE SAUCE"
one of the best additions to Sour, Fish, Joints, and Game. The large and increasing
demands of the best additions to Sour, Fish, Joints, and Game. The large and increasing
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CROSSE and BLACKWELL, Purveyors in Ordinary to Her Malesty, invite attention to their PICKLES, SAUCES, TAET FRUITS, and other Table Delicacies, the whole of which are prepared with the most scrupions attention to supplying Her Majesty; a Table with their Manufactures. A few of the articles most highly recommended are—Pickles and Tart Fruits of every description, Boyal Table Sauce, Essence of Shrimps. Solos Sauce, Essence of Anchovics, Orange Marmaide, Anchovy and Bloater Pastes, Strasbourg and other Potted Meats, Calf's-foot Jeilles of various kinds for table use, M. Soyer's Sauces, Reliefs, and Aromatic Mustard, Carstairs' Sir Robert Feel's Sauce, and Psyne's Royal Osborne Sauce. To be obtained of all respectable Olimen, Grocers, &c., and wholesels of Caoses and ElacKwell, 21, Scho-square, London.

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MAPPIN AND CO., SHEFFIELD MANUFACTURERS, 77 and 78, OXFORD STREET, OPPOSITE THE PANTHEON.

The largest Stock in London of Electro-Silver Plats and Cutlery.

MAPPIN AND CO.'S ELECTRO-SILVER PLATE

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